

SMYTHE'S SCHOOL GRAMMAR.

OUR OWN

SCHOOL GRAMMAR,

DESIGNED FOR

OUR SCHOOLS AND ACADEMIES,

AS A SEQUEL TO THE "PRIMARY GRAMMAR."

By CHARLES W. SMYTHE, A. M.,

PRINCIPAL OF THE LEXINGTON ENGLISH AND CLASSICAL SCHOOL,

AND AUTHOR OF "OUR OWN PRIMARY GRAMMAR."

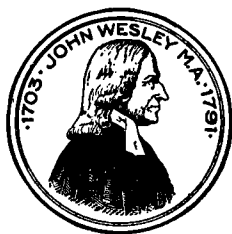
GREENSBOROUGH, N. C.

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RICHMOND, VA., W. HARGRAVE WHITE.

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STROTHER & MARCOM, PRINTERS,
RALEIGH, N. C.

PREFACE.

I offer this book to my fellow-teachers and the public, as a sequel to my Primary Grammar. While better adapted to follow that book in regular course, it has been so arranged that it may be used independently.

My object in its preparation has been to co-operate in supplying a home literature, and to meet an immediate and pressing demand in our schools.

I have endeavored to combine the staple of our common books with the results attained by the laborers in the higher departments of philological science, as well as in the special field of the English language; and to make it conform, as far as fitness would allow, to the highest standard reached.

The past thirty years has been marked abroad by an enthusiastic, laborious, and thorough study of all the facts of language, and very much has been accomplished.

I have endeavored, as far as possible, to make myself acquainted with the fruits of those labors. I have not aimed at innovation, but wherever a fact or a term has become well es-

tablished, and bears the evidence of truth upon it, scientific honesty warrants and demands its admission.

I have made free use of the best works of American, English, and German authors.

While I have aimed at simplicity and clearness of statement I have not undertaken to write an easy book, though I trust it will not be found a difficult one. My object has been, not only to impart information, but to awaken thought and stimulate to farther study

For that reason I have referred sparingly but generally to our Saxon original, and have discussed briefly some of the points in the philosophy of language.

Language is not only the product and vehicle of thought, but one of its highest objects; and whatever treats of it should have that idea clearly in view

What I have already done only makes me more conscious of my own weakness and ignorance. I commit this book to my fellow-teachers, asking them to point out freely all errors, either in conception or execution, that their knowledge or experience may dictate, assuring them that their suggestions will receive a thoughtful and careful consideration.

Owing to the difficulties of our situation, the

mechanical dress of the book will of necessity be inferior to that of northern publications.

Every possible improvement will be made hereafter.

CHAS. W. SMYTHE.

Lexington, N. C., Jan. 1862.

THE ORIGIN OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE.

THE English language is the language of the larger portion of the people of Great Britain and their descendants in both hemispheres.

It was not the original language of Britain and never has been spoken by all the British people at any one time.

There are besides now existing, the Welsh in Wales, the Irish in Ireland, the Gaelic in Scotland, and the Manks in the Isle of Man.

The earliest people of Britain, that we know of, were the Celts, related to the earliest inhabitants of France, and the ancestors of the Welsh.

The Romans conquered the larger part of the island between 55 B. C., and 80 A. D., and held it nearly 500 years.

They built cities, temples, theatres, baths, and paved roads, and introduced quite a degree of civilization. How much they affected the language of Britain we cannot tell, as no work of that day remains. It is probable that the language of the common people was changed but little. A few traces are found in the names of places; as, *coln* in Lincoln, from *colonia* a colony; *street* from *stra-*

tum a paved way; *chester* and *cester* from *castrum* a camp, as in Dorchester, Lancaster, &c.

About the end of the third century after Christ, the coasts of Britain began to be infested by a race of marauding seamen from the coasts of Germany, who seem to have been known under the name of Saxons from the short sword they carried, called a *seax*.

They were first, the Frisians, who lived in the North of Holland and along the coast as far as the Elbe. They were tributary to the Saxons, who lived in the vallies of the Ems, the Weser, and the Elbe.

Third, the Angles, who now lived in southern Denmark and about the mouth of the Elbe. Lastly the Jutes from Jutland in the Danish peninsula.

When the Romans were compelled to withdraw from Britain to defend their own homes, the Britons were exposed to the inroads of their northern neighbors. They are said to have called in the aid of Jutish leaders and to have given them, as a reward, the island of Thanet. However this may have been, the pressure of the Northmen seems to have been the principal cause that sent the Angles and Saxons from their homes.

Calling others to their aid, the Jutish leaders turned upon the Britons and after a hard struggle established the kingdom of Kent.

During the next hundred years, five other successful invasions were made; three by Saxons, in Sussex, Wessex, and Essex; that is, South Saxons, West Saxons, and East Saxons; and two by Angles in the eastern and northern parts of England.

The Britons made a determined resistance, and those who were not conquered and made slaves, fled to the west of England, of which they held possession for a long time.

The Britons were a more civilized people than their conquerors, and many of the names of things in every day life come from them, such as *basket*, *barrow*, *button*, *bran*, *crook*, *gusset*, *darn* (a patch), *beam*, *flannel*, *flaw*, *funnel*, *gown*, *hem*, *mop*, *pan*, *rail*, *rim*, *ridge*, &c. Many low terms, such as *fudge*, *spre*, *sham*, *bully*, are of the same origin and show their servile condition. The Saxons fixed their language upon the country they conquered, while the British, except in these traces, disappeared.

Nearly three centuries had passed, the Anglo-Saxons had become Christians and were settling down into one nation, when the Northmen appeared on their coasts. They were connected with them in race, spoke a language resembling theirs, and were pagan pirates as they had once been. They were the Danes, Norwegians, and Swedes.

They infested the shores of the British islands, France, Germany, and Russia.

In the reign of Alfred they acquired possession of all the north and east of England, from which they were never entirely driven. Their part of England was called *Danelagh*, or the Danes' community, and was bounded on the southwest by the Watling Street, an old Roman road, running from London to Chester.* Under Canute they ruled all England 26 years.

*Students' Hume, p. 44.

They exerted a wide influence upon the Anglo-Saxon language, and the form that grew up in the north of England is called Dano-Saxon.

There were two forms prevailing before, the West Saxon, the language of the people of Alfred, and the Anglian, which prevailed in the north of England; both with an extensive literature.

The next change resulted from the introduction of the Normans and the Norman-French language.

The Northmen under the son of a Norwegian earl had taken possession of the north of France, which was called from them Normandy. They gave up their own language, the Norse, the present language of Iceland, and adopted the French. Among them the northern French flourished in its greatest purity.

They subdued England under William the Conqueror in 1066.

To the haughty Normans, the Saxons were a despised and enslaved race, and their language a barbarous idiom. They endeavored to make their language, the language of England. It did become the language of law, of war, of the courts, and schools.

The common people held fast hold upon their ancient language, and the struggle lasted for two hundred years. Finally, when the Normans lost their French possessions, they settled down among their Saxon subjects, and from the union thus arising the English people and language arose.

The Saxons furnished the larger part of the words, the Normans stripped them of their end-

ings, and brought them to a form resembling their present condition.

The English is the result of a mixture of languages, 'moulded by the lapse of time, and the struggle between discordant elements.

There is first, the Celtic element. This consists of words derived by the Saxons from their Celtic subjects and neighbors, and of words, few in number, introduced during later periods.

Second, the German element, introduced first, through the Saxon, Angle, Jute, and Frisian invaders, forming the bulk of the language; secondly, through the influence of modern German literature and science.

Third, the Northern or Scandinavian element. This is akin to the other and introduced by invasion and long contact. Its influence has been greater upon the grammar than upon the vocabulary of the language.

Fourth, the Latin element, introduced first, by the Romans; secondly, by the early missionaries; thirdly, by the study and imitation of Latin literature; fourthly, through Latin scientific terms; and lastly and largely, through the Norman-French.

Fifth, the Greek element, introduced by the study of Greek literature, by the use of Greek scientific terms, and by the use of the language in the early Christian church.

Sixth, the French element, introduced by the Normans, by social intercourse, the influence of literature, fashion, and science.

Finally, it has borrowed words from every language with which it has come in contact.

In all its history it has never been a simple language, but an aggregate of elements continually enlarging and struggling for unity.

From its peculiar structure it is able to seize and appropriate to itself the peculiar riches of all languages, and has reached a wonderful degree of flexibility and power, which makes it a mighty instrument among the nations of the earth.

Among educated people the language is spoken and written with but slight variation from London to Australia, and from Quebec to San Francisco. Among the common people in England there is much diversity in language, arising from diversity in settlement just mentioned, and from local causes.

It should be felt as a high obligation resting upon every member of the Anglo-Saxon family to do away as much as possible with these local peculiarities, and make the language of our English Bible, that most potent instrument of good that has ever existed in any literature, one and the same wherever it is spoken.

ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

INTRODUCTION.

CHAPTER I.

THE NATURE AND SUBDIVISIONS OF GRAMMAR.

1. Grammar is the science of language.

Language is composed of words, and combinations of words in propositions and sentences.

2. A proposition is a collection of words making a simple assertion; as, "Truth is eternal."

3. A sentence consists of one proposition, or two or more united together; as, "I was reading when you came."

4. Grammar treats of the various relations that words have to each other, and the modes by which those relations are expressed.

It treats also of the history, origin, and formation of words; of their elements, whether sounds or letters, of the laws of verse, and of correctness and propriety in speaking and writing.

5. The relations of words to each other are shown either by certain endings called *in-*

lections, by the *position* of words, or by certain *helping words*.

Thus in *John's hat*, the relation of *John* to *hat* is shown by the inflection, 's. In "John struck James," it is shown by *position*; and in "He *may* come to me," it is shown by the helping words *may* and *to*.

The method by inflection was once more usual in our language than it is now. The loss of the Saxon inflections was one of the great changes resulting from the influence of the Norman French.

6. Words are of two kinds spoken, and written. *Spoken* words are certain sounds made use of to express our ideas.

Written words consist of characters used to represent those sounds.

7 Grammar contains five parts; Phonology, Orthography, Etymology, Syntax, and Prosody.

Phonology treats of sounds; Orthography, of letters, and other characters made use of in expressing sounds; Etymology, of the origin and forms of words; Syntax, of their correct arrangement in sentences and their relations to each other there; Prosody, of the quantity of syllables and the laws of verse.

PART FIRST.

PHONOLOGY

CHAPTER II.

8. Phonology is the science of sounds.

Words when spoken consist of sounds, either singly as *a*, *ah*, *oh*; or of several simple sounds united together; as in *lamp*.

9. Sounds are produced by the passage of the breath through the organs of speech.

The organs of speech are two membranes at the head of the windpipe called the *vocal chords*, the upper part of the *throat*, the *soft palate*, the *palate*, and the *teeth*, *gums*, *lips*, and *tongue*.

The tongue from its flexibility enters into the formation of every sound and from its Latin name *lingua*, through the French *langage*, our word language comes.

10. When we speak, the vocal chords are tightened; the stream of breath strikes upon them, puts them in vibration and produces a sound.

This is variously modified in its passage through the other organs and thus all the various sounds are produced.

These organs are affected by climate, habit, and use, so that nations differ in their sounds so much that it is sometimes very difficult to speak a foreign language.

11. The sounds thus produced are divided into two classes; vowels, and consonants.

A vowel sound is produced when the breath passes through the organs without obstruction.

A Consonant sound is produced by closing more or less the organs of speech.

In forming the vowels the organs may be looked upon as a tube, which may be expanded or contracted, lengthened or shortened; while in forming the consonants, the same tube may be regarded as wholly, or partially closed and opened again.

12. The different vowel sounds are formed by placing the organs in different positions and sending the voice through them.

They are sounds heard in *fate, far, fall, fat, mete, met, pine, pin, note, move, not, use, full, but, oil, house.*

The consonant *r* modifies certain of these sounds; as in *air, fair, there, their*, which are classed with *a* in *fate*, but which, for that reason, differ slightly from it.

Besides these there is an unmodified vowel sound heard after a final consonant or between two consonants; as, in *el-m, ryth-m, schis-m.*

It is formed by opening the organs and allowing the sound to pass through. It is heard in *but, bird, lull.* All vowel sounds tend to pass into it; as, *beggar, offer, bird, work, but.*

13. The vowel sounds are of two kinds, simple, and compound or diphthongs

14. The simple vowels are those, which, when prolonged, preserve the sound unchanged; as in *arm, eve.*

They are *a* in *arm*, *all*, *at*; *e* in *eve*, *met*; *i* in *pin*; *o* in *move*, *not*; *u* in *full*, *but*.

15. The diphthongs are those sounds which commence with one element and end with another; as, *i* in *pine*, which commences with the sound of *a* in *fat* and ends with *i* in *pin* or the semivowel *y*.

16. In forming diphthongs the vowel elements *a*, *e*, *o*, unite with *i* and *u*. *A*, *e* and *o* are the initial elements; *i* and *u*, the final.

17. English diphthongs are of two classes; those that are expressed by one letter, and those that are expressed by two.

The first class consists of *a* in *name*, *i* in *pine*, *o* in *note*, and *u* in *tune*.

The second consists of *oi* in *oil*, and *ou* in *house*.

18. There are many combinations of vowels, which are not diphthongs, since they represent but one sound; such as *ea* in *beat*, *au* in *pause*, *ai* in *said*.

They are expedients to show the quantity or length of the vowel. Some of them are substitutes for diphthongs, and for other simple vowels.

They are called digraphs, when composed of two letters; trigraphs when composed of three; as, *eau* in *beau*, *iew* in *view*.

The current statement, that a diphthong is the union of two vowels, is incorrect; unless those combinations express two sounds, an initial and final. For instance *ea* in *beat* is not a diphthong, but a digraph, having the sound of *e* in *metc*.

CHAPTER III.

THE CONSONANTS.

19. If any of the organs are nearly or quite closed, a new class of sounds called *consonants* are heard. They break the stream of sound into parts and thus enable us to utter syllables and words.

This makes the difference between man and the animals in speech. Beasts utter vowel sounds, men, as Homer long ago observed are *articulate speaking*, that is, they use consonants.

20. These sounds cannot form the shortest word without the aid of a vowel, and are hence called *consonants*, that is *sounding together*, since they sound together with a vowel.

21. The organs may be closed entirely, as in *top*, and then the sound be exploded or burst out, or the closure may be accompanied by a resonant sound as in *rob*, *rod*.

22. The first class are called *sharp* or *surd*, the second *flat* or *sonant*.

23. If the organs in each class are not brought quite close together, but the breath is allowed a narrow passage, a rough or aspirated sound is heard.

Thus two other classes of sounds are formed, the smooth, as in *tin*, *din*; and the aspirated as in *thin*, *thine*.

24. If contact is made, but the breath is allowed to flow freely around the point of contact, or through some other passage, as the nose, liquids or flowing sounds are formed.

25. *W* and *y* at the beginning of words and syllables are consonants, elsewhere they are vowels.

They are hence called semivowels.

W is aspirated into *wh*, compare *wit* with *whit*.

26. The full system of sounds in English is as follows.

VOWELS.

SIMPLE OR PURE VOWELS.		COMPOUND OR DIPHTHONGS.	
1 <i>A</i> in arm, father.		11 <i>A</i> in name, modified in <i>air</i> .	
2 <i>A</i> in all, ball.		12 <i>I</i> in pine.	
3 <i>A</i> in at, bat.		13 <i>O</i> in note.	
4 <i>E</i> in eve, mete.		14 <i>U</i> in use, tube.	
5 <i>E</i> in end, send,		15 <i>Oi</i> in oil, boil.	
6 <i>I</i> in in, pin.		16 <i>Ou</i> in house, how.	
7 <i>O</i> in move, prove.		SEMIVOWELS.	
8 <i>O</i> in not, rob.		17 <i>Y</i> in yet, my.	
9 <i>U</i> in bull, pull.		18 <i>W</i> in wit, wet.	
10 <i>U</i> in but, tub.		19 <i>Wh</i> in whit, when.	

CONSONANTS.

SHARP OR SURD.		FLAT OR SONANT.	
<i>Smooth.</i>	<i>Aspirate.</i>	<i>Smooth.</i>	<i>Aspirate.</i>
20 <i>K</i> in king		21 <i>G</i> in dog	
22 <i>C</i> in church	23 <i>Sh</i> in she	24 <i>J</i> in joy	25 <i>Zh</i> in azure
	26 <i>S</i> in sin		27 <i>Z</i> in zeal
28 <i>T</i> in tin	29 <i>Th</i> in thin	30 <i>D</i> in din	31 <i>Th</i> in thine
32 <i>P</i> in pin	33 <i>F</i> in fin	34 <i>B</i> in boat	35 <i>V</i> in vine

LIQUIDS.

36 <i>L</i> in bull	37 <i>M</i> in man	38 <i>N</i> in nun	39 <i>Ng</i> in sing
40 <i>R</i> in run	41 <i>The</i> breathing	<i>H</i> in hand, hour, hot	

27. This table contains all the sounds, but not all the characters in the English language.

C represents the 20th and 23th; *G* sound is sometimes like the 21st, sometimes like the 24th, *Q* has the sound of *K*.

F and *V* are not exactly aspirates of *p* and *b*, since they are formed, not between the lips, but between the under lip and upper teeth.

28. Sounds are also classed as explosive and continuous

The smooth consonants are all explosive. The vowels, the liquids, and the aspirates are all continuous.

29. The relation of consonants as sharp and flat gives rise to several important rules.

Rule I. When two consonants of different degrees of sharpness and flatness come together they cannot be pronounced; as *abt*, *agt*, *apd*, *asd*, *avt*, *agp*, *afb*, *akd*, *ashd*, *abth*, *akz*, *afd*, *akb*, &c.

Rule II. When two consonants, one sharp and the other flat come together they must both become sharp or flat:—

<i>Art</i>	becomes	<i>aft</i>	or	<i>avd</i> .
<i>Abth</i>	"	<i>apth</i>	or	<i>abt</i> .
<i>Ajt</i>	"	<i>akt</i>	or	<i>agd</i> .
<i>Ags</i>	"	<i>aks</i>	or	<i>agz</i> .
<i>Asd</i>	"	<i>ast</i>	or	<i>azd</i> , &c.

Rule III. Two identical letters cannot come together in the same syllable and be pronounced; as, *tapp*, *batt*.

Two letters do sometimes occur, either to distinguish two words of the same sound, as *butt*, a vessel from *but* except; or, as was sometimes the case in Old English, to show that a vowel was short, as "*Himm bilde ic thatt hett writte riht*" "Him bid I that it write right" ORMULUM. 13th cent.

30. Rule 2nd has three important applications in English Grammar, the plurals of nouns in *s*, the possessive case in *s*, and the past tense in *ed*.

For instance *stags* may be written, but it must be pronounced *stagz*. The reason is that the forms are derived from Saxon where *stags* would be either *stagas* or *stages*. In English we have dropped the *e*, without changing the *s*, as *wordes* word's, *mannes* man's. In words like *tossed*

plucked, when the *e* is dropped in spelling or pronunciation, they are sounded toss't pluck't. Hence many words are spelled in that manner; as *slept*, *crept*, *burnt*, &c.

31. CLASSES OF CONSONANTS ACCORDING TO ORGANS OF FORMATION.

1. *H* is a faucal from *fauces* the throat.
2. *K*, *q*—*g*, *c* hard,—and *ng* are gutturals, from *guttur* the throat. *H* is formed lower than these.
3. *Ch*, *sh*, *j*, *zh* and *y* consonant are palatals.
4. *T*, *th*, *d*, *th* in this, *l*, *n*, *s*, and *z* are dentals from *dens* a tooth.
5. *R* is a lingual from *lingua* the tongue.
6. *P*, *b*, *m*, *f*, *v*, *w* are labials from *labium* a lip. *M*, *n*, *ng* are also nasals

CHAPTER IV

SYLLABLES.

32. A syllable is one or more simple sounds pronounced by one impulse of the voice; as combination.

Each syllable must contain at least one vowel.

A monosyllable is a word of one syllable. A dissyllable is a word of two syllables, a trissyllable of three syllables, a polysyllable of more than three.

33. RULES FOR SYLLABLES.

Rule 1. Compound words are separated into simple; as, *over-power*, *foot-man*.

Rule 2. Two vowels which do not form diphthongs are separated ; as *li-on*, *cru-el*, *de-ist*.

Rule 3. Two consonants that may be pronounced together are not separated ; as *fa-ble*, *sti-fle* ; otherwise they are separated ; as, *hap-py*, *ut-most*, *un-der*.

QUANTITY OF SYLLABLES.

34. By quantity is meant the time occupied in pronouncing a syllable ; as *note* is longer than *not*.

The long sounds are :—

A in father,

A in fate,

“ “

Ee in feet,

Oo in cool,

O in note,

Aw in ball, bawl,

“ “ “

The short sounds are :—

“ “

A in fat,

E in bed,

I in pit,

U in bull,

O in not,

“ “

U in but.

Forms like *oo*, *ee*, *ai*, *ea*, *oa*, are expedients to show that the sound is long.

EXERCISES.

Let the pupil write out these words, divide them into syllables, and point out their quantity.

Answer, Improvement, Justify, Justification, Conjugate, Admiration, Reaction, Conscience, Atonement, Horsemanship, Penmanship, Perceiving, Annoying, Guarded, Alliance, Emphasis, Extinguish, Scrutinize, Consummate.

Let the teacher give other words.

EXERCISES IN PHONETIC ANALYSIS.

35. Remember that many letters and combinations of letters are silent ; as, in “ *High* on a throne of royal state,” the letters in *italics* are silent.

Secondly, that many combinations stand for simple elements,

Model. "High on a throne of royal state." The first element is *h* in *hot*, the second *i* in *pine*, the third silent. The next is *o* in *not*, second *n* in *nun*. Next *a* in *name*. Next *th* in *thin*, second *r* in *run*, third *o* in *note*, fourth *n* in *nun*, fifth silent. Next *o* in *not*, second *v* in *vine*. Next *r* in *run*, second *oi* in *oil*, third *a* in *at*, fourth *l* in *bull*. Next *s* in *sin*, second *t* in *tin*, third *a* in *name*, fourth *t* in *tin*, fifth silent.

Analyze in like manner:—

Of law no less can be acknowledged than that her seat is the bosom of God; her voice, the harmony of the world. All things in heaven and earth do her homage; the very least as feeling her care, and the greatest as not exempted from her power.

HOOVER.

Point out the consonants whether surd or sonant, explosive or continuous; and their classes, whether guttural, palatal, dental, or labial.

Let the teacher give similar exercises until the pupil is familiar with the elements.

PART SECOND.


 ORTHOGRAPHY
 

CHAPTER V

THE VOWEL LETTERS AND THEIR SOUNDS.

36. Orthography treats of the correct method of spelling and writing words.

Phonology belongs to the spoken language, *Orthography* belongs to the written.

37. The simple sounds are represented by letters. There are in English 41 sounds, to represent which there are 26 letters.

A, c, e, f, g, h, i, o, s, u, w, x, and y, represent more than one sound.

Th, dh, ch, sh, wh, zh, have no simple character to represent them.

C, q, and x, are unnecessary, except for the purpose of showing the derivation of words.

38. The vowel letters are *a, e, i, o, u, w,* and *y.*

The consonant letters are the mutes, *b, c, d, f, g, j, k, p, q, s, b, v, x,* and *z*; the liquids *l, m, n, r*; the breathing or simple aspirate *h.*

SOUNDS OF THE VOWELS.

39. *A* has four sounds. 1. *A* in *name.* This is a diphthong. It is modified by *r* in *care, air.*

2. *A* in *father*, *far*, called the Italian *a*. This is the primary sound of *a* and was once more common in English than now. *A* in *blance*, *fast*, is a modification of this, intermediate between it and *a* in *fat*.

3. *A* in *fall*, *all*, called broad *a*. There is a shortened sound of this in *what*.

4. *A* in *fat*. This is the short or dependent sound of *a*.

Short is not the proper term since the sound of *a* in *fat* can be continued as long as *a* in *fate* or *far*. The difference between *fate* and *fat* consists not in length, but in the abrupt force of the *t*. Latham proposes the terms *independent* and *dependent* to express this difference. The same remark applies to the other vowels.

40. *E* has two sounds. 1. *E* in *mete*, *ere*. In *there*, *where*, it sounds like *a* in *care*. In *error*, *mercy*, *her* it is modified by *r*, so as to be intermediate between *e* in *mete* and *ur*. It should not be pronounced *urror*, *murcy*, &c.

2. *E* in *met*, *end*: *E* silent at the end of words softens *c* and *s*, as in *France*, *expense*. It lengthens a preceding vowel.

41. *I* has two sounds. 1. *I* in *pine*. This is a diphthong.

2. *I* in *pin*, *pit*. This is the dependent sound of *e* in *mete*. In *machine* it has the sound of *e*. In *sir*, *bird*, it is like *err*.

42. *O* has three sounds. 1. *O* in *note*. This is a diphthong.

2. *O* in *not*, which is nearly the sound of *a* in *all*.

3. *O* in *move*, *prove*.

43. *U* has three sounds. 1. *U* in *mule*, *use*. This

is a diphthong. Compare *use* with *youth*. 2. *U* in *but*.

3. *U* in *bull*, *pull*.

Oi and *Ou* are proper diphthongs, here represented by two letters.

W and *y*, where vowels, have the sounds of *u* and *i*.

44. In language, generally, the vowels sound thus. *A* like *a* in *far*; *e* like *a* in *name* nearly; *i* like *e* in *mete*; *o* like *o* in *note*, *not*; *u* like *o* in *move*.

In English there has been a gradual falling off from the open vowel sounds to those more slender; from *a* to *e*, from *e* to *i*.

45. The diphthongs are analyzed thus. *A* in *name* closes with the sound of *e* (It commences with continental *e* and ends with *y*). *I* in *pine* commences with *a* in *fat* and closes with *e*, (or *y*). *O* in *note* closes with the sound of *o* in *move*. *U* in *use* commences with *e* in *eye* and ends with *o* in *move*. *Oi* commences with the sound of *a* in *all* and closes with *e* (or *y*). *Ou* in *out*, *our* commences with *a* in *far** and closes with *o* in *move*.

46. The vowels are substituted for each other in a large number of words, as in these examples:—

A 1, in name. *Weigh*, *obey*, *there*, *sail*, *day*, *air*, *break*.

A 2, in far. *Heart*, *daunt*, *baa*, *guard*.

A 3, in all. *Caul*, *awful*, *nor*, *broad*, *ought*.

A 4, in at. *Shall*, *plaid*.

E 1, in mete. *Machine*, *Cæsar*, *tea*, *eel*, *people*, *key*.

E 2, in met. *Any*, *bury*, *head*, *heifer*, *friend*, *said*.

I 1, in pine. *Comply*, *aisle*, *height*, *ley*, *die*, *guide*, *buy*.

I 2, in pin. *England*, *women*, *busy*, *hymn*.

O 1, in note. *Yeoman*, *beau*, *coal*, *thouyh*, *foe*.

*More closely, with a sound between *u* in *but*, and *a* in *far*.

- O 2, in not. *Cough, was.*
 O 3, in move. *Canoe, soup, rule.*
 U 1, in mule. *New, feud, beauty, lieu, juice.*
 U 2, in but. *Done, myrrh.*
 U 3, in full. *Wolf, could.*
 Oi in oil. *Boy.* Ou in house. *Now.*

CHAPTER VI.

THE CONSONANT LETTERS AND THEIR SOUNDS.

They will be arranged according to the organs producing them, from the throat outward to the lips.

47. I. *H* is formed deepest down the throat and is called a faucal. It is a breathing and has two sounds; 1, the smooth, commonly called silent *h*, as in *hour*; 2, the rough, commonly called hard *h*, as in *horse*.

The smooth *h* is best heard when two words come together, the one ending and the other beginning with a vowel; as in *go over, no order*.

48. II. The Gutturals are *k, q, c* and *g* hard. and *ng*.

1. *K* has only one sound, as in *kite*.

2. *C* before the vowels *a, o, u*, is sounded like *k*, as in *cake, come*. *C* before *e, i* and *y*, is soft like *s*, as in *cent, city*. In *social* it is like *sh*. *Ck*, since it is the doubling of two like elements, is sounded like simple *k*, as in *kick*.

K before *n* is silent, as in *knife*.

3. *Q* is always followed by *u* and is equivalent to *kw*.

4. *G* is hard before *a, o, u*. Before the other

vowels *e*, *i*, and *y*, it is soft like *j*, except in *gig*, *get*, *give*.

In *hedge* the *e* shows that it is soft, in *prorogue* the *u* shows that it is hard.

Before *m* and *n* in the same syllable it is silent, as in *phlegm*, *resign*.

Gh at the beginning of words is sounded like *g*. In other places it is generally silent, as in *high*, *plough*, *through*. In *laugh* and *enough* it is sounded like *f*; in *hough* like *k*.

5. *Ng* is a simple elementary sound, as in *sing*. It is also heard in *sink*, *link*, &c.

49. III. The Palatals are *ch*, *sh*, *j*, *zh*, and *y* consonant. *Ch*, *sh*, *zh*, are simple elements represented by two letters.

1. *Ch* is generally analyzed as equal to *tsh*, but it is an explosive sound, is not formed so far forward as *t*, and has nothing of the continuous sound of *sh*.

It sounds like *k* in *chorus*, *sh* in *machine*, and is silent in *drachm*.

2. *Sh* is the aspirate of *ch*. It is represented by *s* in *sure*.

3. *J* is a simple sound and is the sonant of *ch*.

4. *Zh* or *z* in *azure* is the aspirate of *j*. It is represented by *s* in *pleasure*.

5. *Y* is a simple sound, as in *year*.

50. IV The Dentals are *t*, *th*, *d*, (*dh*) *th* in *thine*, *l*, *n*, *c* soft, *s*, and *z*.

1. *T* represents a simple sound. *Ti* followed by a vowel has the sound of *sh*, as in *portion*, *motion*.

2. *Th* represents two simple sounds. *Th* in *thin* is the aspirate of *t*. *Th* in *thine* is the aspirate of

d. They were represented in Saxon by different letters.

3. *D* represents a simple sound, as in *send*.

4. *L* represents a simple sound, as in *lull*.

L and *r* are by some called semivowels. They approach the character of vowels.

5. *N* represents a simple sound. It is silent after *m* and *l*; as in *hymn*, *k'ln*.

Before *k* it sounds like *ng*, as in *sink*, (*sing*.)

6. *S* represents a simple sound. It is sounded like *z* in *bosom*, *sh* in *sure*, *zh* in *pleasure*.

7. *Z* represents a simple sound. It is the sonant of *s*.

51. *V* *R* represents a simple sound. It is a lingual, since the tongue is the chief organ in producing it. It is a liquid and closely approaches a vowel sound. It modifies the sound of all the vowels, as in *care*, *air*, *her*, *bird*, *for*, *syrtis*.

52. VI. The Labials are *p*, *b*, *f*, *m*, *v*, *w*.

The labials are the most outward sounds and the first that children learn to utter.

1. *P* represents a simple sound. It is silent in *psalm*.

Ph is sounded *f* in *Philip*, *v* in *Stephen*.

2. *B* represents a simple sound and is the sonant of *p*.

3. *M* represents a simple sound.

4. *F* represents a simple sound. In *of* it is sounded *v*. It is nearly the aspirate of *p*.

5. *V* represents a simple sound. It is the sonant of *f*, and the aspirate of *b* nearly.

6. *W* as a consonant represents a simple sound, as in *wit*. It is aspirated in *whit*.

53. *X* is a compound sound, representing *ks* in *box*, *gz* in *example*. and *z* in *Xerxes*.

54. Our Alphabet is thus imperfectly adapted to express our sounds.

It came to us from the Romans, and is derived from the Phenician through the Old Greek.

55. The sounds represented by the letters of the English Alphabet are therefore these.

A as in *fate*, *far*, *fall*, *fat*. M as in *maim*.

B as in *rob*.

P as in *pin*.

C hard in *can*, soft in *city*. Q as in *queen*.

D as in *rod*.

R as in *rob*, *far*.

E as in *mete*, *met*.

S as in *sin*, in *has*, and in

F as in *fate*, and in *of*.

sure.

G hard in *go*, soft in *giant*. T as in *take*.

H hard in *horse*, soft in *U* as in *mule*, *tub*, *bull*.

honor.

V as in *vane*.

I as in *pine*, *pin*.

W as in *wet*, and in *new*.

J as in *joy*.

X as in *Xerxes*, *tax*, and

K as in *king*, *took*.

example.

L as in *lull*.

Y as in *yet*.

N as in *nun*.

Z in *zeal*, and in *azure*.

O as in *note*, *not*, *prove*.

CHAPTER VII.

RULES FOR SPELLING.

Capital Letters.

56. Begin with a capital :—

1. Every sentence, and every line of poetry.
2. Proper nouns and common nouns personified; as, *George Washington*. Hail, bounteous *Autumn* !
3. Names and appellations of the Deity; as, *God*, *Jehovah*, the *Almighty*, the *Messiah*, the *Holy Spirit*.
4. Titles of honor and office, names of religious bodies, parties, and public bodies; as, *Governor Clark*, *Judge Marshall*, *Baptist*, *Congress*, &c.
5. Adjectives derived from proper names; as, *Roman*, *English*, *American*.
6. Direct quotations; as, "Our Saviour said 'Take up thy cross and follow me.'"
7. Important words in the titles of books; as, *Johnson's Lives of the Poets*.
8. I and O should always be in capitals.
9. Words that are remarkably emphatic.

57. RULES FOR MONOSYLLABLES.

Rule I. Monosyllables ending in *f*, *l*, or *s*, preceded by a single vowel, double the final letter; as, *stuff*, *muff*, *staff*, *will*, *mass*.

EXCEPT *of*, *if*, *has*, *his*, *was*, *yes*, *gas*, *is*, *this*, *thus*, *us*, *pus*.

Rule II. Those ending in any other consonant do not double the final letter; as, *it*, *nor*, &c.

EXCEPT *add*, *ebb*, *odd*, *egg*, *err*, *purr*, *burr*, *inn*, *butt*, *buzz*.

58. RULES FOR COMPOUNDS AND DERIVATIVES.

Rule III. Compounds retain the spelling of the principal words that compose them; as, *fireman*, *horseman*.

Rule IV Final *e* is rejected before an ending beginning with a vowel; as, bribe, *bribing*; blame, *blamable*.

EXCEPTION. Words ending in *ce* and *ge* and taking *able* or *ous*, and verbs in *ce*, *oe*, retain the *e*; as, peace, *peaceable*; change, *changable*; see, *seeing*; hoe, *hoeing*.

Rule V Final *e* is retained before an ending beginning with a consonant; as, case, *casement*.

EXCEPT in *duly*, *truly*, *wholly*, *awful*, *judgment*.

Rule VI. Monosyllables, and words accented on the last syllable, when preceded by a single vowel double the final consonant on receiving an addition beginning with a vowel; as, rob, *robber*, rag, *ragged*; trim, *trimming*.

Rule VII. Words ending in *y* preceded by a consonant change the *y* into *i* on receiving an addition; as, happy, *happier*; lovely, *lovelier*.

Rule VIII. Verbs ending in *ie* change *ie* into *y* before *ing*; as die, *dying*; tie, *tying*.

Rule IX. Words ending in *ll* drop one *l* before *less* and *ly*; as skill, *skil-less*; hill, *hil-ly*.

EXERCISES TO BE CORRECTED.

His book. I heard a goose his. The gass is out. I looked in the glas. Pinns were scattered about. Hee omitted the last lesson. The foxes were runing across the fields. Seizeing his gun he pursued them. He spoko truly. He acted abelely and and nobelely. He is a skilful workman. Your visit was wellcome. She is happier than I am. It was a glorypous act. On the enterance of the actöress the house became silent.

tomorrow's sun may never rise. ingland, ireland, scotland and wales form the kingdom of Great britain.

The ozark mountains cross the line that seperates missouri from arkansas.

"he that by the plough would thrive,"

"himself must either hold or drive."

i am going to see mr. john jones.

PART THIRD.

ETYMOLOGY

CHAPTER VIII.

INTRODUCTION.

SECTION I.

59. Etymology treats of the origin, history, classes, and forms of words.

Etymology treats of words simply, while Syntax treats of words united in propositions and sentences.

In studying grammar we must study *words* and *propositions* at the same time.

60. A proposition is a collection of words that expresses a complete thought; as, "John runs." "The rose is beautiful." "The sun rises."

61. It consists of two parts, *subject* and *predicate*.

1. The subject is that of which something is said; as, *John* in *John runs*.

2. The predicate is that which is said of the subject; as, *runs* in *John runs*.

62. To analyze means to take apart. In

grammar it means to point out the *subjects*, *predicates*, and *modifying words*.

63. To c o m p o s e means to put together.

In grammar it means to form propositions and sentences.

I. Analyze these propositions:—

The rain falls. The sun shines. The days are long.
The rose is beautiful. The wind blew. God is great.
His word is true.

II. Compose propositions containing these words:—

- | | | |
|-----------------------|-----------------------------|---------------|
| 1. Sun. | 5. Apples, plums and pears. | 8. The woods. |
| 2. Wind. | | 9. The river. |
| 3. Clouds. | 6. The rose. | |
| 4. Father and mother. | 7. The garden. | |

SECTION II.

LOGICAL AND GRAMMATICAL SUBJECTS AND PREDICATES.

64. 1 When I say, “The ant provides for winter;” *ant* is the *grammatical subject*.

2. When I say, “The prudent ant provides for winter;” “the prudent ant” is the *logical subject*.

3. The g r a m m a t i c a l s u b j e c t is the simple subject.

4. The l o g i c a l s u b j e c t is the grammatical subject with its various modifiers.

The and *prudent* are the modifiers of *ant*.

5. A modifying word is a word used to describe quality or otherwise limit another.

“The sacred book of the Mahometans is called the Koran.” “Is called,” is the *grammatical predicate*. “Is called the Koran,” is the *logical predicate*.

6. The *grammatical predicate* is the simple predicate.

7 The *logical predicate* is the grammatical predicate with its various modifiers.

Point out the different forms of subject and predicate in these propositions.

EXERCISES.

The prudent man foresees the evil day and provides against it. The manifold works of God display his power and goodness. The doctrines of Christianity are founded on the Bible.

Xenophon, the historian, was a disciple of Socrates. True worth is modest and retiring. The old bird tenderly provides for her young.

Write six sentences describing a rose. Also six describing an orange.

SECTION III.

DIVISION OF SENTENCES.

65. Propositions, single or combined, form *sentences*.

1. A simple sentence contains but one proposition; as, "The sun shines."

2. A compound sentence contains two or more propositions; as, "The sun shines and the clouds disappear." "Vice is degrading, but virtue is ennobling."

66. We may declare something, ask something, command something, or exclaim something.

67. Hence there are *declarative, interrogative, im-*

perative, and *exclamatory* sentences.

Declarative and imperative sentences end with periods(.); interrogative, with the interrogation point(?); and exclamatory, with the exclamation point(!).

I. What kind of sentences are these?

James reads. What is he reading? Let him read. How well he reads! If he reads, he will improve.

II. Change these into interrogative sentences:

Love conquers all things. God is good. Mother is kind. The fields are green. The warm sun ripens the grain. The rains refresh the thirsty earth.

III. Make these declarative :—

Have you learned your lesson? Has the teacher come? Have you seen your friend? Must all men die?

IV Make these imperative :—

The sun shines. *Model.* *Let the sun shine.* Does John read? James is coming. No one loves bad men. They prize virtue more than gold.

V Make these exclamatory :—

It rains hard. *Model.* *How hard it rains!* Does John study hard? Does Mary play well? The evening twilight is beautiful. The moon shines beautifully. It silvers the tops of the trees. The winds blow chilly and drearily.

Analyze the sentences given above.

68. A simple sentence may consist of *two*, or of *three* parts.

1. The subject and predicate may stand in immediate connection with each other; as, in *John sings*.

2. Or they may be separated from each other by *is* or some word of similar meaning; as, “The apple *is* sour.” “John *is* a farmer.”

3. *Is* here connects the predicate with the sub-

ject and is called a *copula*, which means a *link* or *joining*.

Write sentences describing *a chair*, *a table*, and *a desk*.

CHAPTER IX.

CLASSES OF WORDS.

69. The words which form sentences have different meanings and uses.

I. Some words are *names* of persons or things.

1. These are called *Nouns*. 2. They may be either subjects, or predicates of propositions; as, "*James is a painter*."

II. Some words tell us what *is* or *is done*; or assert something.

1. They are called *Verbs*; as, "*John reads*." "*The rose is sweet*."

2. They can form the predicates of propositions alone.

III. Some words stand for nouns. 1. They are called *Pronouns*; as, "*John reads his book*."

2. They may be used anywhere instead of nouns.

IV. Some words modify nouns and pronouns; as, "*The grass is green*." "*A sweet rose*." "*This man*."

1. They are called *Adjectives*.

2. They may form the predicates of propositions, but cannot be used alone as subjects.

V. Some words modify nouns, but cannot be used alone as predicates; as, "*The apple*." "*A man*." They are called *Articles*.

VI. Some words modify the meaning of verbs

and adjectives; as, "The sun shines *brightly*."
 "The tree is *very* high." •

1. They are called *Adverbs*.

2. They form no essential part of the proposition, but only modify its members:

VII. Some words connect nouns and pronouns with other words and point out the relations between them; as, "He comes *with* me."

1. They are called *Prepositions*. 2. They form no essential part of a proposition, but only express relations.

VIII. Some words are used to connect words and propositions together; as, "James *and* Mary are coming." "The sun rises *and* the clouds disappear."

1. They are called *Conjunctions*. 2. They connect propositions together without forming a part of either.

IX. Some words are used in cries of anger, distress, joy, &c; as, *O 'oh! ah! huzza!*

1. They are called *Interjections*.

2. They form no part of any proposition.

70. Thus there are *nine classes of words*, or as they are called *Parts of Speech*.

71. They are the *Noun, Verb, Pronoun, Adjective, Article, Adverb, Preposition, Conjunction, and Interjection*.

72. They are either *essential*, or *notional* words, that is, such as express some idea; or they are *formal*, or *relational* words, that is, such as express relation, connection and so forth.

I. The *notional* words are:—

1. The *Noun*; 2. *Adjectives*; 3. *Verbs*; 4.

Adverbs of manner, time and place, when used without any reference to the speaker; as, "The child sleeps *sweetly*." "He will arrive *early*." "They went *eastward*."

II. The relational words are:—

1. Auxiliary verbs; 2. Articles; 3. Pronouns; 4. Numerals; 5. Prepositions; 6. Conjunctions; 7. Relational Adverbs, that is, those not used absolutely, but relating to the speaker; as, "He lives *here*." "He departs *now*." "He speaks *thus*."

CHAPTER X.

NOUNS.

73. A noun is the name of any person, place, or thing.

Or in reference to the proposition:—

A Noun is a word, that with all finite verbs may form the subject of a proposition, or with the verb *to be* may form the predicate.

The word *noun* is from the Latin *nomen* and means a name.

74. There are two general classes of nouns.

1. *First*, the names of objects that actually exist together with their qualities or attributes.

They are called Concrete Nouns.

Concrete means *grown together*.

2. *Second*, the names of qualities or attributes, *separate* from their objects; as, *Mother* is the name of a person with all her attributes, and is a *concrete* noun, but *goodness*, *love*, *patience*, *kindness*, are

names of attributes separated from her as their object.

They are called **A b s t r a c t N o u n s**

Abstract means *drawn from* or *separated*.

75. Under *Concrete Nouns* are comprised :—

1. Names of objects that exist as *individuals* as, *man, tree, horse*.

2. Names of objects that do not exist as individuals, as, *gold, silver, iron, wood, water, air, wheat, cotton, ashes, dregs, news, wages, &c.*

They are called *Material nouns*.

76. Nouns denoting individual objects are divided into *Proper, Common, Complex, and Collective* nouns.

77. A **C o m m o n N o u n** is the name of a whole class of objects ; as, *tree, house, man, city, &c.*

78. A **P r o p e r N o u n** is a particular name of any person, place, or thing ; as, *city* is a name common to all cities and is a common noun, while *Richmond, Raleigh, and Charleston*, are names of particular cities and are proper nouns.

79. A **C o m p l e x N o u n** is a name, together with some title ; as, *Mr. William Johnson, General Washington, Judge Marshall*. They are proper nouns.

80. A **C o l l e c t i v e N o u n** is a noun signifying many persons or things taken as one whole ; as, *army, people, nation, society, Congress*.

They may be proper nouns ; as, *Congress, Parliament* ; or common nouns ; as, *nation, people, army*.

81. The distinction of common and proper nouns belongs only to those objects that may form classes, and more especially to the names of such objects as exist as individuals.

Abstract nouns are in their nature particular names and do not naturally receive the distinction of *common* and *proper*. Such of them as may become plural may admit the distinction of class and individual objects; as, "*Justice* is one of the *virtues*." This is not their natural usage.

82. Anything is said to be *personified*, when an object without life is represented as having life or a *personal existence*.

When abstract objects are personified their names become concrete nouns, and may be common or proper; as, *soul*, *spirit*, *time*, &c.

Examples. "O Time, how few thy value weigh!"

"Genius and Learning walk in the train of virtue."

"Peace and Plenty smile upon the land."

83. A Verbal noun is a noun derived from a verb; as, "*Writing* is a tiresome, *reading* is a pleasant employment."

1. In Saxon they ended in *ung*; as, *cleansung*; a cleansing; *clepany*, a calling.

2. They may be distinguished by being derived from verbs, and by their ability to form the subjects of propositions. They are *abstract* nouns.

Building, a house, or thing built, and some others have become concrete nouns.

84. Proper nouns represent but one object.

1. When they become plural, they are common nouns; as, *The Stuarts*, *The Jameses*, *The Browns*.

2. When we speak of a people; as, the *Russians*, the *English*, those words are proper nouns; but, when we speak of individuals, they are common; as, "I saw several *Russians* in London."

3. When the articles stand before proper nouns they become common; as, "He is *the Cicero* of his age," that is, he is a great orator. "He is not a *Washington*," that is, a great and good man.

4. When *the* is prefixed to common nouns, they

may be used as proper nouns; as, *The, Bar, the Park, the Common, the Deluge.*

5. Any word, letter, or character used merely as such, is a noun; as, "*A* is an article," "*Truly* is an adverb," "*6* is a figure," "*The he's and she's* will be there."

EXERCISES FOR ANALYSIS AND PARSING.

MODEL. *James* is a noun, it is a name; proper, it is a particular name.

River is a noun, it is a name; common, a general name

Barley is a noun, it is a name; material, it denotes a material substance.

Goodness is a noun, it is a name; abstract, it is the name of a quality.

Nation is a noun, it is a name; collective, it denotes many as one whole. *Writing* is a noun, it is a name; verbal, it is the name of an action. *Studies* is a verb, it asserts something

James studies his lesson. The river is called the Nile. Barley, wheat, and corn grow in the fields. Goodness is a quality to be esteemed. The nation is divided. Writing letters to our friends is pleasant labor. The pine is a tall tree. Holland is the name of a country in Europe. Industry is a law of our being. It is a demand of nature, of reason, and of God.

The pupil may analyze and parse all the words in these sentences, or point out only those things that he has learned.

CHAPTER XI.

PROPERTIES OF NOUNS AND PRONOUNS.

SECTION I. PERSON.

Pronouns stand for nouns and have all their properties; hence the properties of nouns and pronouns may be considered together.

85. I may say *I* write, *thou* writest or *you* write, *he* writes, or *James* writes.

1. Here *I* marks the speaker; *thou* or *you*, the one spoken to, and *he* or *James*, the one spoken of.

2. This distinction is called in Grammar *person*.

86. *Person* is a property of nouns and pronouns, that denotes the *speaker*, the one *spoken to*, and the one *spoken of*.

1. There are *three persons*; the *first*, *second*, and *third*.

2. The *first person* denotes the speaker.

3. The *second person* denotes the one spoken to.

4. The *third person* denotes the person or object spoken of.

5. The pronoun has different words to represent the persons. *I* represents the first person; *thou* or *you* the second; *he*, *she*, and *it* the third.

87. This distinction strictly has reference only to persons, but it is extended in the second person to objects personified; as, "O Death, where is thy sting?" and in the third person to animals and things; as, "The wind blows."

1. In the first and second persons the pronouns are the true representatives of the personality of the speaker or person addressed.

2. Nouns are never used in the first and second person

as subjects or objects of the verb, but only in apposition with pronouns expressed or understood; as, "I, *Victoria*, queen of England, command," &c. "*John* come (thou) to me."

88. The verb has three persons to agree with the three persons of the subject; as, *I sing, thou singest, he sings.*

EXERCISES.

MODEL. *James* is a proper noun, it is a particular name; third person, spoken of, and is the subject of *goes*. *I* is a pronoun, it stands for a noun; first person, it denotes the speaker, and is the subject of *am*.

James goes to school, he learns well. I am glad to see you. You must come with me. Spring has come. The rains refresh the fields. Alfred defeated the Danes. Romulus founded the city of Rome. Daniel Boone settled in Kentucky. O Death, where is thy sting!

(Write a short description of the school lot.)

SECTION II. NUMBER.

89. We say, boy, *boys*; man, *men*; hat, *hats*; the bird sings, *the birds sing*; he writes, *they write*.

1. This difference in the form of words is called number, and it belongs to nouns, pronouns, and verbs.

2. There are two forms, called the *singular* and the *plural*.

3. *Singular* means one; *plural*, more than one.

90. There are two ways of forming the plural of nouns.

1. The first is by adding a letter or syllable; as, boy, *boys*; box, *boxes*; ox, *oxen*.

2. The second is by changing the vowel of the words; as, man, *men*; mouse, *mice*.

3. The first is called the *weak* form, because it requires an addition from without.

4. The second is called the *strong* form, because it is able to form the plural within itself.

5. This was formerly more common than now. For example, Saxon *freond*, *frýnd*; gives English friend, friends; *boc*, *bēc*; book, books; *turf*, *tyrf*; turf, turfs.

FORMATION OF THE PLURAL.

91. The plural is generally formed by adding *s*, or where that cannot be pronounced with the word, by adding *es*; as, boy, *boys*; hill, *hills*; river, *ricers*; box, *boxes*; fox, *foxes*; lash, *lashes*; church, *churches*.

1. Nouns ending in *x*, *z*, *ss*, *sh*, or *ch*, add *es*.

2. Nouns ending in *f*, or *fe* change those endings into *ves*; as, calf, *calves*; half, *halves*; wife, *wives*.

EXCEPT nouns in *ff*, and *gulf*, *roof*, *hoof*, *mischief*, *brief*, *chief*, *strife*, *fife*, *safe*, *grief*, *dwarf*, *turf*, *proof*, which add *s*.

3. *F* at the end of Saxon words had the sound of *v*, hence the plurals, *calves*, *lives* are regular, while the singular and the exceptions have changed the sound.

4. Such words as *strife*, *fife*, *grief*, and so forth, take the sharp sound of *s* to distinguish them from *strives*, *fires*, *grices*, *saves*, &c.

5. Nouns ending in *y* preceded by a consonant change *y* into *ies*.

The singular of these words formerly ended in *ie*, hence the plural is regular; as, vanitie *vanities*; ladie, *ladies*.

6. Nouns ending in *y* preceded by a vowel generally add *s*; as, day, *days*; valley, *valleys*.

7. Proper names in *y* preceded by a vowel are

sometimes formed in *ies*; as, the *Maries*, or the *Marys*.

8. Nouns in *i* generally add *es*; as, alkali, *alkalies*.

9. Nouns in *o* preceded by a consonant generally add *es*; as, hero, *heroes*; cargo, *cargoes*; negro, *negroes*.

EXCEPT *junto*, *canto*, *tyro*, *grotto*, *portico*, *solo*, *quarto*, *octavo*, *duodecimo*, *memento*, which add *s*.

10. A few nouns add *n* or *en*; as ox, *oxen*; cow, *cowen* gives *kine*; sow, *sowen*, *swine*.

In the English dialects there are such forms as shoe, *shoon*; eye, *eyen*, or *eyne*; house, *housen*; *welken*.

11. The strong plural is formed by changing the vowel; as, man, *men*; woman, *women*; tooth, *teeth*; foot, *feet*; goose, *geese*; mouse, *mice*; louse, *lice*.

12. Words which are compounds of *man* form their plurals in *men*; as, alderman, *aldermen*; statesman, *statesmen*.

13. Those which are not compounds of *man* add *s*; as, Turcoman, *Turcomans*; Musselman, *Musselmans*; talisman, *talismans*.

92. A few nouns have two plurals with different meanings; as,

Brother, brothers (of the same family,) brethren (of a society.)

Die, dies (for coining,) dice (for gaming.)

Fish, fishes (in number as twelve,) fish (the species.)

Fowl, fowls (in number,) fowl (the species.)

Genius, geniuses (men of genius,) genii (spirits.)

Index, indexes (tables of contents,) indices (signs in algebra.)

Pea, peas (in number,) pease (the species.)

Penny, pennies (coins in number,) pence (in value.)

93. Some nouns from the nature of the things they represent have no plural.

They are, 1. most material nouns; as, *gold, silver, wheat, sugar, tea, air, flour, &c.*

When these denote varieties they may be plural; as, the *teas*, the *sugars*, the *wines*.

2. Most abstract nouns; as, *prudence, wisdom, goodness*. They are sometimes plural as when we speak of the *virtues, vices, courtesies, &c.*

3. The names of the sciences; as, *music, algebra, ethics, metaphysics, &c.*

4. The noun *news* is singular.

94. Some nouns are found only in the plural.

1. They are such as:—

Annals, antipodes, archives, ashes, bitters, bowels, clothes, dregs, embers, goods, literati, manners, morals, riches, thanks, tidings, wages, &c.

2. Also names of such objects as consist of two parts; as, *nippers, pincers, scissors, tongs, shears, snuffers, compasses, goggles, breeches, &c.*

3. *Horse, foot, infantry*, are also plural in meaning.

95. Some nouns have the same form in both numbers; as, *deer, sheep, trout, salmon, cannon, sail, shot, head, weight, means*.

Examples. Twenty cannon were taken. Fifty shot were fired. Ten sail of ships. Forty head of cattle. A hundred weight of sugar.

96. Such words as *pair, brace, dozen, score*, when preceded by a numeral are singular in form, but plural in meaning; as, *three pairs, ten dozen, five score*, but *by pairs, by dozens*.

97. In compounds, the principal words take the sign of the plural; as, *fathers-in-law, courts-martial*.

Compounds without a hyphen make the last member

plural; as, *spoonfuls*, *outgoings*. Some words make both members plural; as, *men-servants*.

98. Words used merely as such follow the general rule; as, *the ins*, *the outs*. "The *ups* and *downs* of life."

99. Letters, figures, signs and so forth, take the apostrophe and letter *s*; as, the *a's*, *b's*, *c's*, *7's*, *x's*, ———'s.

100. Usage is still unsettled as to the plurals of complex nouns.

1. When they are preceded by a numeral the noun is made plural; as, "The *two* Mr. Browns." The noun with *Mrs.* takes the plural; as, "The *Mrs.* Browns."

2. Both title and name should not take the plural. We must say either the *Misses Brown*, or the *Miss Browns*.

3. The tendency seems to be in favor of the former, especially in respectful address, while in familiar, colloquial style the latter prevails.

4. A title applied to more than one person is made plural; as, "Generals *Beauregard* and *Johnston*."

101. Many foreign words retain their original plurals. Those in *on* and *um* change those endings to *a*; those in *a* to *ae* and *ata*; those in *us*, to *i* and *era*; those in *is*, to *es* and *ides*.

I. Those that retain their original plural alone are:—

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
Alumnus,	alumni.	Emphasis,	emphases.
Amanuensis,	amanuenses.	Ephemeris,	ephemerides.
Analysis,	Analyses.	Erratum,	errata.
Antithesis,	antitheses.	Focus,	foci.
Arcanum,	arcana.	Genus,	genera.
Axis,	axes.	Hypothesis,	hypotheses.
Basis,	bases.	Ignis fatuus,	ignes fatui.
Beau,	beaux.	Lamina,	laminae.
Chrysalis,	chrysalides.	Larva,	larvae.
Crisis,	crises.	Metamorpho-	metamorpho-
Datum,	data.	sis,	ses.
Desideratum,	desiderata.	Miasma,	miasmata.
Diacresis,	diaereses.	Monsieur,	messieurs.
Effluvium,	effluvia.	Nebula,	nebulae.
Ellipsis,	ellipses.	Oasis,	oases.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
Parenthesis,	parentheses.	Stimulus,	stimuli.
Phasis,	phases.	Stratum,	strata.
Phenomenon,	phenomena.	Thesis,	theses.
Radius,	radii.	Virtuoso,	virtuosi.
Scoria,	scoriae.	Vortex,	vortices.
Speculum,	specula.		

II. Those that have both an English and foreign plural are :—

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Foreign Plural.</i>	<i>English Plural.</i>
Apex,	apices.	apexes.
Appendix,	appendixes,	appendices.
Automaton,	automatons,	automata.
Bandit,	bandits,	banditti.
Calx,	calxes,	calces.
Cherub,	cherubs,	cherubim.
Criterion,	criteria,	criteria.
Dogma,	dogmas,	dogmata.
Encomium,	encomiums,	encomia.
Formula,	formulas,	formulae.
Fungus,	funguses,	fungi.
Gymnasium,	gymnasiums,	gymnasia.
Medium,	mediums,	media.
Memorandum,	memorandums,	memoranda.
Momentum,	momentums,	momenta.
Scholium,	scholiums,	scholia.
Seraph,	seraphs,	seraphim.
Stamen,	stamens,	stamina.

EXERCISES.

MODEL. *The bird sings.* *Bird* is a common noun, a general name; third person, spoken of; singular number, denotes but one, and is the subject of *sings*. *Sings* is a verb, it asserts something; third singular to agree with *bird*, by

RULE II. *The verb must agree with its subject in number and person.*

The bird flies. Water flows. The rains fall. The trees put forth their leaves. The rivers flow into the sea. Columbus was born at Genoa.

Form the plural of these nouns. Inch, house, fox, hero, potato, loaf, wife, knife, money, key, staff, muff, ox, book, lady, chimney, man, woman.

SECTION III. GENDER.

102. All living creatures are divided into two classes, called *sexes*, *male* and *female*.

Nouns and *pronouns*, with reference to this, are divided into *three classes*; those representing *males*, those representing *females*, and those representing *things without life*.

103. This distinction is called in Grammar *gender*. The word *gender* means *kind* or *class*.

Gender is a distinction of nouns and pronouns with regard to sex.

104. There are three genders; masculine, feminine, and neuter.

The word *neuter* means neither.

1. The names of males are masculine

2. The names of females are feminine.

3. The names of things without life, are neuter

105. A few nouns represent persons or animals that may be either male or female; as, *parent*, *friend*, *cousin*, *deer*, *sheep*, &c.

1. Their gender may generally be known by what is said, otherwise they may be parsed as of the "masculine or feminine gender."

2. They are sometimes said to be of the common gender; that is, masculine or feminine.

3. In pronouns of the third person, *he* is masculine, *she* is feminine, *it* is neuter.

106. Sometimes things without life are personified. Then they become masculine, or feminine.

This is peculiar to the English, and adds much to the richness of the language.

1. In these cases, such objects as possess strength, courage, majesty, and other manly attributes, are considered masculine; and those that possess the attributes of receiving, containing, and which are gentle and lovely, are considered feminine.

2. Thus, *time, death, fear, war, the sun, winter*, are masculine; and *peace, hope, wisdom, spring, the earth, the moon, &c.*, feminine.

3. Most *abstract* nouns and the names of countries are made feminine.

4. The same distinction is made among animals, when the species is spoken of; as, "The lion takes up *his* abode in the forest." "The cat is noted for *her* love of home."

5. When the distinction of gender among animals is unimportant they are considered neuter; as, I had a kid and sold *it*."

6. Infant children are hardly thought of as persons and are put in the neuter gender; as, "The child loves *its* mother."

7. Masculine words are used when reference is made to a profession which may include both sexes; as, "Poets are entitled to the gratitude of the world."

8. But, when reference is made to individuals, a distinct form is used for each gender; as, *Milton, the Poet; Mrs. Hemans, the Poetess*.

107 Some masculine nouns have corresponding feminines. They are distinguished in three ways,

I. First, by different words.

<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>	<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>
Bachelor,	maid.	Drake,	duck.
Beau,	belle.	Earl,	countess.
Boy,	girl.	Father,	mother.
Brother,	sister.	Friar,	nun.
Buck,	doe.	Gander,	goose.
Bull,	cow.	Gentleman,	lady.

<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>	<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>
Hart, roe.	Man,	woman.	Sir, madam.
Horse, mare.	Master,	mistress.	Son, daughter.
Husband, wife.	Master,	miss.	Stag, hind.
King, queen.	Nephew,	neice.	Stear, heifer.
Lad, lass.	Papa,	mamma.	Uncle, aunt.
Lord, lady.	Ram,	ewe.	Wizard, witch.

II. By difference of termination.

<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>	<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>
Abbot,	abbess.	Hunter,	huntress.
Actor,	actress.	Instructor,	instructress.
Administrator	administratrix	Jew,	jewess.
Adulterer,	adulteress.	Lion,	lioness.
Ambassador,	ambadress.	Marquis,	marchioness.
Arbiter,	arbitress.	Negro,	negress.
Author,	authoress.	Patron,	patroness.
Baron,	baroness.	Peer,	peeress.
Benefactor,	benefactress.	Poet,	poetess.
Caterer,	cateress.	Priest,	priestess.
Conductor,	conductress.	Prior,	prioress.
Count,	countess.	Prince,	princess.
Czar,	czarina.	Prophet,	prophetess.
Dauphin,	dauphiness.	Protector,	protectress.
Deacon,	deaconess.	Shepherd,	shepherdess.
Don,	donna.	Songster,	songstress.
Duke,	duchess.	Sorcerer,	sorceress.
Emperor,	empress.	Sultan,	sultanness.
Enchanter,	enchantress.	Tailor,	tailoress.
Executor,	executrix.	Testator,	testatrix.
Giant,	giantess.	Tiger,	tigress.
Governor,	governess.	Tutor,	tutress.
Heir,	heiress.	Viscount,	viscountess.
Hero,	heroine.	Votary,	voteress.
Host,	hostess.	Widower,	widow.

III. By composition or by prefixing words.

Bridegroom,	Bride.	Manservant,	maidservant.
Gentleman,	gentlewoman.	Male-child,	female-child.
He-bear,	she-bear.	Merman,	Mermaid.
He-goat,	she-goat.	Schoolmaster,	schoolmistress,
Landlord,	landlady.	and some others.	
Male,	female.		

A few words are used only in the feminine; as, *amazon, brunette, dowager, shrew, syren, virago*; and some only in the masculine; as, *baker, brewer*.

EXERCISES.

MODEL. *Trees grow.* *Trees* is a common noun, a general name; third person, spoken of; plural number means more than one; neuter gender, neither male nor female, and is the subject of *grow*.

The time has come. The snow falls. The cat watches for her prey. The ship is receiving her load. James gave a book to his mother. Earth with her thousand voices praises God. Of law no less can be acknowledged than that her seat is the bosom of God: her voice, the harmony of the world.

Write six sentences upon any subject; as, a horse, or dog. *Let the teacher give subjects.*

SECTION IV CASE

108. I may say, "*John* writes." "*John's* horse runs." "*James* teaches *John*." "*he* gave *John* a book," and "*John*, come to me."

Here the noun *John* appears in different relations: first, as *subject*; second, as the *possessor*; third, as the *direct object*; fourth, as the *indirect object*; fifth, as the *person addressed*.

These relations are called *cases*.

109. Cases are the different relations which nouns and pronouns have to other words in the same proposition.

English Grammarians usually reckon three

cases in propositions; the nominative, possessive, and objective.

110. The noun denoting the person or thing addressed does not belong to the proposition. In other languages it is said to be in the vocative case, which is the most suitable term in English, and it will be used in this book.

The indirect object, or that to or for which anything is done, *now* has the same form as the direct, and is usually said to be in the same case. It is properly in the Dative case, and may be so parsed.

111. The Nominative case is the subject of the proposition; as, *John* reads. *He* sings.

112. The Possessive case denotes possession, origin, and fitness, or design; as, *John's* hat; *The sun's* rays, that is, rays proceeding from the sun; *Men's* shoes, that is, shoes designed for men.

113. The Objective case is the object of an action; as James teaches *John*. I esteem *him*.

•It is also the complement of a preposition; as, James, come with *me*. He is *in* the house.

114. The Dative case denotes that to or for which anything is or is done; as, He gave *me* a book.*

115. The Vocative case denotes the person or thing addressed; as, *Mary*, come here.

It is variously called the Nominative case independent, the independent case, and the case absolute.

The term vocative is the most consistent.

116. Case properly refers to the change of termination in the word; as, in the Saxon *smith* a smith. Nominative *smith*, Genitive, *smithes*, of a smith or smith's, Dative *smithē* to a smith, Acc. or objective *smith*.

117. In English nouns the forms of the cases

*The definition of the Dative is inserted for the convenience of those who may wish to use it.

are nearly all lost. Their relations instead of being shown by endings are now shown by position, or by prepositions. •

FORMS OF THE CASES.

118. The Nominative has the simple form of the noun, and may be determined by asking the question *who?* or *what?*; as, "John runs." *Who runs?* Ans. *John*. *John* is in the nominative case.

119. The Possessive case singular is formed by adding the apostrophe (') and *s*; as, in *John's hat*.

The apostrophe takes the place of the omitted *e* as in *smith's*, *man's*, *man's*.

1. When the *s* will not unite easily with the word, the apostrophe only is added; as, *for conscience sake*, *Moses' hat*, *Thetis' son*.

It is said that in the majority of such cases, hitherto the custom has been to add the *s*; as, *James's hat*, *Erasmus's dialogue*, *Collins's ode*. The tendency now is to reject it.

2. When the plural ends in *s*, the apostrophe only is added; as, *The boys' books*, *The girls' play*.

When the plural does not end in *s*, the possessive is formed as in the singular; as *men's hats*.

120. The direct Objective may be determined by asking *whom?* or *what?*; as, "He cuts wood." *What does he cut?* Ans. *wood*. *Wood* is in the objective. •

121. The indirect object or Dative by asking *to* or *for whom*; as, "He gave me a book." *To*

whom did he give it? Ans. *me*. *Me* is the indirect or Dative object.*

122. The Vocative is known by being the name of the person or thing addressed.

The Nominative, Objective, Dative, and Vocative, now have the same form.

Form the Possessive case of these nouns. Boy, fox, man, James, horse, boys, men, house, William, Henry.

123. Nouns are thus declined:

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Sin.</i>	<i>Plu.</i>
<i>Nom.</i> , John,	<i>Nom.</i> , Boy,	<i>Nom.</i> , Boys,	Man,	Men,
<i>Poss.</i> , John's,	<i>Poss.</i> , Boy's,	<i>Poss.</i> , Boys',	Man's,	Men's,
<i>Obj.</i> , John.	<i>Obj.</i> , Boy;	<i>Obj.</i> , Boys.	Man;	Men.

The Objective and Dative cases have now the same form.

Decline in the same manner:—Girl, house, child, son, heir, lady, book, friend, king, queen, Jane, &c.

EXERCISES.

MODEL. *William, James's sister has given me a book.*

After the pupil has become perfectly familiar with the reasons for each particular, they may be omitted.

William is a proper noun, masculine, second, singular, and in the vocative case, by

Rule XXV *The name of the person or thing addressed is put in the vocative.*

James's is a proper noun, masculine, third, singular, possessive case, it denotes possession and limits sister, by

Rule V *The noun or pronoun limiting another noun or*

*NOTE. The teacher may use his own judgment about the use of the Dative. The *direct* and *indirect* objects have a distinct and separate existence, and must be distinguished from each other in analysis. I prefer to use the Dative.

pronoun denoting a different person or thing is put in the possessive case.

Sister is a common noun, feminine, third, singular, nominative case, it is the subject of *has given*, by

Rule I. *The subject of the finite verb is put in the nominative case.*

Book and *me* are parsed by rules X and XII. John's horse runs. My father comes. Susan's mother calls. The sun's rays scorch. James's sister has come. Arnold's treason disgraced his name. Joseph's father mourned for him. The eagle's talons seized the prey. William gave his brother a book.

EXERCISE IN ANALYSIS.

Horse is the subject, it is that of which something is said. It is modified by *John's*. *Runs* is the predicate, it is that which is said of the subject. *Analyze the remaining sentences.*

CHAPTER XIII.

PRONOUNS.

124. A P R O N O U N is a word used instead of a noun. Or, in reference to the proposition :

A P R O N O U N is a word, which is not the name of an object, but which may be used instead of a noun.

They are something more than mere substitutes for nouns. Nouns are names of objects without the power in themselves of expressing relations. Pronouns are substitutes for them, and possess in addition the power of

expressing relations. As such, they express the relation of objects to the speaker; as, *this, that, he, it, &c.*

125. *I* marks the speaker himself as independent and separate from all other objects. It stands for no noun and is a *substantive* in itself, that is, it exists by itself.

Thou marks the person addressed. It also stands for no noun, and is a substantive.

The remaining pronouns are substitutes for nouns.

The oblique forms of pronouns form the case endings of nouns and the personal endings of verbs, where they exist. In this way only nouns and verbs express relations.

Pronouns point out the position of objects and the direction of motion and hence furnish many of the adverbs and conjunctions; as, *here, there, where, then, thus, thither, whither, &c.*

126. That to which a pronoun refers is called its *antecedent*. *Antecedent* means going before.

127. Pronouns are divided into Personal, Possessive, Interrogative, Relative, and Definitive

SECTION I. PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

128. Personal pronouns are those that show by their form of what person they are.

They are *I, thou or you, he, she, and it.*

I represents the first person, *thou or you* the second, *he, she, and it* the third.

129. *I, and thou or you,* are substantive pronouns, that is they represent persons themselves.

130. *He, she, and it,* are demonstratives, that is, they point out precisely the objects to which they

relate; as, *He* is the man, *she* is the woman, or *it* is the thing that you seek.

He is masculine, *she* feminine, *it* neuter.

The first and second persons have no form to show their gender, since they are always present and their gender is known.

131. The substantive pronouns are thus declined.

For the sake of comparison I insert the corresponding Anglo-Saxon forms.

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Anglo-Saxon.</i>	
<i>Nom.</i> , I, Thou, <i>Common form</i> ,	You,	<i>Nom.</i> , Ic, Thu,	
<i>Poss.</i> , My, Thy	Your,	<i>Poss.</i> , Min, Thin,	
<i>Obj.</i> , Me, Thee,	You,	<i>Obj.</i> , Me, The,	
<i>Dat.</i> , Me; Thee;	You,	<i>Dative</i> Me; The;	
<i>Plural.</i>			
<i>Nom.</i> , We, Ye, <i>Common form</i> ,	You,	<i>Nom.</i> , We, Ge,	
<i>Poss.</i> , Our, Your,	Your,	<i>Poss.</i> , Ure, Eower,	
<i>Obj.</i> , Us, You,	You,	<i>Obj.</i> , Us, Eow,	
<i>Dat.</i> , Us, You.	You.	<i>Dat.</i> , Us, Eow.	

132. Some grammarians give two forms of the possessive case, as *my* or *mine*, *thy* or *thine*, *your* or *yours*.

Others consider *my*, *thy*, &c., the true possessive cases, and others still restrict the possessive case to *mine*, &c.

My and *mine*, *thy* and *thine* are supposed to be of the same origin from *min*, *thin*, though there is some uncertainty.

133. *My* and *thy* now perform the office of the possessive case; as, *John's* hat, *my* hat.

Mine and *thine* are sometimes used in solemn style, and in poetry as possessive cases; as, "I kept myself from *mine* iniquity," Ps. 18: 23. "*Mine* hour is not yet come." John 2: 4. "God stay thee in *thine* agony my boy".—WILLIS.

134. *Ye* is sometimes used as the objective plural, but it is not the proper form.

135. *Thou* is now used only in addressing the

Deity, in the Scriptures, in solemn and impassioned writings, and among the Friends.

It is also employed in contemptuous expressions; as, "Thou slave, thou wretch, thou coward,"

"Thou little valiant, great in villainy."

136. *You* is now employed both in the singular and plural.

137. *We* is much used by editors, authors, and in royal proclamations for the singular.

Its frequent use is not to be encouraged, as, where there is not an actual association in office, it shows a want of manly independence.

138. Declension of the third person *he, she, it*.

<i>Singular</i>		<i>Anglo-Saxon.</i>	
<i>Nom.</i> , He, She, It,		<i>Nom.</i> , He, Heo, Hit,	
<i>Poss.</i> , His, Her, Its,		<i>Poss.</i> , His, Hire, His,	
<i>Obj.</i> , Him, Her, It,		<i>Obj.</i> , Hine, Hi, Hit,	
<i>Dat.</i> , Him; Her; It;)		<i>Dat.</i> , Him; Hire; Him;	
<i>Plural.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>	
<i>Nom.</i> , They, They, They,		<i>Nom.</i> , Hi. Old Eng. Hi,	
<i>Poss.</i> , Their, Their, Their,		<i>Poss.</i> , Hire	Hir,
<i>Obj.</i> , Them, Them, Them.		<i>Obj.</i> , Hi,	Hi,
(<i>Dat.</i> , Them. Them. Them.)		<i>Dat.</i> , Him.	Hem.

139. *Our* plural is from the plural of the Saxon article, which is *Nom.*, *Tha*, *Gen.*, *Thara*, *Obj.*, *Tha*, *Dat.*, *Thana*.

She is supposed to be from the feminine of the article which is *seo*. *It* is from *hit*. *His* continued to be used as the possessive case of *its*, until the 17th century, when a new possessive, *its*, was formed from *it*. *Its* is not found in the standard version of the Bible.

Example. "Learning hath *his* infancy when it is but beginning, then *his* youth when it is luxuriant and juvenile," &c.—BACON.

140. *Myself, Thyself, himself, herself, itself*, with

their plurals *ourselves, yourselves, themselves*, are compound personal pronouns.

1. They are joined to nouns and pronouns to make them more emphatic; as, "I myself." "The mountains *themselves* decay with years."

2. They are also used when the subject and object are the same person; as, "I blame myself." "She admires herself." They are then called Reflexive pronouns.

EXERCISES.

MODEL. *I study my lesson.* *I* is a personal pronoun, it points out the person, substantive kind; first person it denotes the speaker; singular number, means but one; nominative case, it is the subject of study, by Rule I.

John sent his sister a present. James gave his mother a book. Spring with its flowers will come again. The ship has completed her voyage. Mary and her sister are coming to our house. Industry and sobriety make their possessors respected and happy. Remember thy Creator in the days of thy youth.

SECTION II. POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS.

141. The Possessive pronouns are those which stand for nouns and, at the same time, denote possession.

1. They are *mine, thine, his, hers, its, ours, yours, theirs*.

2. *His* and *its* are the same as the possessive cases of the personal pronouns. *Hers, ours, yours, theirs*, are formed from the possessive cases by adding *s*.

3. They are used in the nominative and objective cases ; as, " The book is *mine*, *hers* is lost, but he has found *his*."

SECTION III. INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS

142. Interrogative pronouns are those used in asking questions ; as, " *Who* is your friend? "

1. They are *who*, *which*, and *what*.

2. *Who* is used in reference to persons ; *which* and *what* in reference either to persons or things.

3. *Who* is always used without a noun or substantively ; *which* and *what* are also used as adjectives ; as, " *Which* book are you reading? " " *What* man is that? "

4. Interrogatives refer to a noun or pronoun following them called the *consequent* ; as " whose hat is this? " Ans. *John's*. *Whose* refers to *John* &c.

5. *Whether*, meaning *which of the two*, was formerly in use ; as, " Whether is greater the gold or the temple " &c.

SECTION IV. RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

143. " He, who is coming, is the man. " " He is the man " is the principal proposition. " Who is coming, " is a clause modifying *he* like an adjective.

Who relates to *he* and connects its clause with it. It is called a *relative pronoun*.

144. The Relative pronouns are *who*, *which*, *that*, *what*, and *as*.

1. The clause in which they stand is called the *relative clause* and it is always a subordinate or modifying proposition.

2. They can never stand in principal propositions, while personal pronouns can.

145. Relative pronouns are those that relate to antecedents and connect their clauses with the principal propositions.

1. *Who*, *which* and *what* are the interrogative pronouns used as relatives.

2. *What* is the neuter of *who*. *Which* is a compound word formed of *who*, Saxon, *hwa* and *lic*, *hwilic*, Scotch *whilk*, *which*.*

3. In "the work which," "that man who," the noun is first rendered definite by the article, or some definitive adjective expressed or understood, and the relative relates to this noun thus defined. The limiting word is called a correlative.

EXAMPLE. "The man who." *The* is the correlative; and *who* relates to the concrete term thus defined, "the man."

146. *That* is the oldest of the relative pronouns and may be used in the place of *who* or *which*.

Who and *which* became relatives as the Saxon was passing into Old English.

147. *Who* relates to persons and is never used as an adjective.

148. *Which* relates to animals and things and may be used as an adjective; as, *for which reason*. It formerly related to persons also; as, "Our Father, which art in Heaven."

149. *As* is used as a relative after *many*, *such*,

"The Saxons used the article *se*, *seo*, *thaet* for the relative. " *Ic, geendode THAET WEORC THAET thu me sealdest to donne.*" I have finished the work which thou gavest me to do. Literally, *the work the*. "*Eall: THA THING TUE ge wyllon thaet menn eow don, doth ge hym thaet sylfe.*" Literally, "All the things which ye will that men do to you, do ye to them that self."

and *same*; as, "Such as come" is equal to "those who come."

150. The relatives have the same form in both numbers and are thus declined:—

<i>Nom.</i>	Who,	<i>Poss.</i>	Whose,	<i>Obj.</i>	Whom.
"	Which,	"	Whose.	"	Which.
"	That,	"		"	That.
"	What,	"		"	What.

That, the original relative, has no possessive now existing. *Whose* may be used for it when needed.

What is used as a relative in both numbers; as "This is *what* is wanted." "These books are *what* are wanted."

It is also used as an adjective. "It matters not *what* names are used." It is sometimes used indefinitely; as, "He cares not *what* he says."

151. *What* is usually parsed as a compound relative equivalent to *that which*; as, "I know what you desire." "I know *that which* you desire:" *that* as the antecedent and object of know, *which* as the relative and object of desire.

Others parse it as the object of both verbs, without supposing it to represent two words.

It is simpler and more consistent with the structure of propositions, to parse the clauses containing *what* and similar words as wholes, subjects or objects of the propositions; as, "What you desire" is the object of know, and "what" the object of desire.

EXERCISES.

MODEL. *The boy, who studies, will learn.* "The boy will learn" is the principal clause. "Who studies" is the relative clause. *Who* is a relative pronoun, it relates to boy and unites the clauses; third, singular to agree with boy, by Rule IX; nominative case and subject of studies by Rule I. *The* is its *correlative*.

The man, whom I saw, has gone. He is the man that I saw. The man whose house I saw is a merchant. He whom I loved is dead. Will not those who raise envy incur censure? They did what they could. Such as I have I give you.

SECTION V DEFINITIVE PRONOUNS.

152. Definitive pronouns are those that are sometimes used as adjectives to define nouns; as, *this* man; and sometimes as pronouns; as, "*This* is mine."

They are divided into *demonstratives*, *distributives*, and *indefinites*.

153. Demonstrative pronouns point out precisely the things to which they relate.

1. They are, *this*, *that*, *these*, *those*, *former* and *latter*.

2. *This* and *these* refer to the nearest persons or things, *that* and *those* to the most distant.

3. *Former* refers to the first mentioned, *latter* to the last mentioned object.

154. Distributive pronouns point out separately the objects which they represent.

1. They are *each*, *every*, *either*, and *neither*.

2. *Each* refers to all the individuals taken separately; as, "*Each* dreamed *his* dream."

3. *Every* has a similar meaning but more emphatic.

4. *Either* denotes one of two. *Neither* means not either.

155. The Indefinite pronouns are those that are used in an indefinite manner.

1. They are *some, one, all, such, none, several, another, other, both, few, own, much, many, same*.

2. They are generally used as adjectives and are pronouns only when used without a noun.

3. *One, other, and another* are declined,—

Nom. Sing., One; *Poss.*, one's; *Obj.*, one. *Nom. Plu.*, ones; *Poss.*, ones; *Obj.*, ones.

156. Such forms as *each other, one another* are called Reciprocal pronouns.

They are treated as compounds and form their possessives as such; as, *each other's, one another's*.

"Bear one another's burdens." That is, let one bear the other's burdens. "They praise each other." *Each* is in apposition with they, and *other* the object of praise.

157. *Whoever, whichever, whatever, whose, whosoever, whatsoever* are called Compound Relatives.

They are parsed like *what*; as "Whoever studies, will learn," "*whoever studies*," is the subject of will learn, and "*whoever*" the subject of studies.

EXERCISES.

Your pleasures are past, mine are to come.
The mountains themselves decay with years. He
blames me and I reproach myself. A city that is
set on a hill cannot be hid. What time remained

was well employed. You wrong yourself. He told what he saw. I believe what he says. The Lord chastens whomsoever he loves. These books are mine, those are yours.

CHAPTER XV.

ADJECTIVES.

158. An *Adjective* is a word joined to nouns and pronouns to modify them.

It does this by describing or defining the objects for which they stand; as, "The tree is *tall*," "*This* book is mine."

It may with the verb *to be* form the predicate of a proposition, but cannot of itself form the subject.

It is intermediate between the noun and verb. The verb expresses both the predicate and predication, that is it asserts what is predicated with reference to some subject. The adjective expresses the predicate only and does not assert.

The adjective says "the flower-blooming;" the verb, "the flower blooms."

If it could be connected at once with the subject, it would become a verb.

159. That it may be predicated of the subject the copula *be* is used; as, "The sun *is* bright."

The primary use of the adjective is to express the predicate. When we know that "an apple is sweet," we may speak of it as "a sweet apple" or use it in an attributive sense.

160. Like the noun the adjective is a name but the name of an attribute, not of an object.

1. Some adjectives express the predicate only ; as, *alike alone, awake, aware, mindful, worth.*

2. Some are rarely used, except as attributes ; as, *daily, hourly. golden, theivish, paternal, fraternal, &c.*

161. In respect to form adjectives are divided into two classes.

1. First, those that are primitive and fix the mind upon the property they describe ; as, *good, kind, dear, green, soft, bright, &c.*

2. Second, those that are derivatives and refer the mind to their origin ; as, *wooden, fatherly, tiresome, seemly, lovely, faithless, witty, &c.*

162. In use adjectives are divided into two classes, those that describe ; as, *a sweet apple*, and those that define ; as, *this apple, ten apples.*

SECTION I. DESCRIPTIVE ADJECTIVES.

163. Descriptive adjectives are used to describe or point out the qualities of objects ; as, *tall trees, good men, sweet flowers.*

1. The noun with the adjective compares with the noun without the adjective, as the proper with the common noun. The adjective distinguishes individuals from the class ; as, *the oak tree, the sweet apple, the good man.*

2. It is sometimes a mere epithet ; as, *cruel tyrants, cruel rulers, &c.*

164. To descriptive adjectives belong *proper adjectives*, or those derived from proper names ; as, *Roman, American* ; and *verbal adjectives*, or those derived from verbs ; as, *enduring friendship, a learned man.*

1. The adjective is sometimes used as a noun, as *good and evil, right and wrong, the chief good.*

2. So when *the* is used with it; as, *the rich, the poor, the beautiful, the true, the good.*

SECTION II. DEFINITIVE ADJECTIVES.

165. Definitive adjectives are used to define or limit the meaning of nouns; as, *this man, that horse, ten books.*

They are divided into *numeral* and *pronominal* adjectives.

166. Numerals are words used in counting, and are of two kinds, *cardinals* and *ordinals*.

1. The Cardinals denote how many; as, *one, two.*

2. The Ordinals denote which one; as, *first, second.*

3. The leading *cardinals, ordinals* and *numeral adverbs* are:—

<i>Cardinals.</i>	<i>Ordinals.</i>	<i>Numeral Adverbs.</i>	
One,	First,	Once,	Firstly,
Two,	Second,	Twice,	Secondly,
Three,	Third,	Thrice,	Thirdly,
Four, &c.,	Fourth, &c.,	Four times, &c.,	Fourthly,
Ten,	Tenth,	Ten times,	Tenthly,
Twenty-one,	Twenty-first.	Twenty-one times	Twenty-first.

167 The pronominal adjectives are those that are sometimes used as pronouns.

1. They are divided into *demonstratives, distributives*, and *indefinites*.

2. The demonstratives are *this, that, these, those, former, latter, yon, yonder.*

3. The distributives are *each, every, either, neither.*

4. The indefinites are chiefly *all, any, both,*

another, other, few, many, much, no, none, own, some, same, several, such, whole.

EXERCISES.

MODEL. *The good man is happy.* *Good* is a descriptive adjective, it is a word joined to a noun to describe it and modifies man, by

Rule VI. *Adjectives modify nouns and pronouns.*

Each is a definitive adjective, it is joined to a noun to define it; distributive it limits objects taken singly, and modifies man by Rule VI.

Each man was six feet high. The virtuous man will be rewarded. The river is broad and deep. Every man must render an account for himself. Cæsar was a brave and skillful general. You can take either road. Let another man praise thee and not thine own mouth.

SECTION III. COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES.

168. Descriptive adjectives receive a change of termination called *comparison*.

I may say a *tall* man, a *taller* man, the *tallest* man.

169. There are three degrees of comparison.

1. The first is the simple or positive state, *tall*.

2. It describes without comparison.

Except that every adjective distinguishes the object it modifies from others of the same class; as, the *wise* man in distinction from men in general.

3. The second is the comparative degree, *taller*.

4. It expresses a higher or lower degree of quality than the positive and makes a comparison between two.

5. It is formed by adding *r* or *er* to the positive.
6. The third is the superlative degree, *tallest*.
7. It expresses the highest or lowest degree, and makes a comparison between three or more.
8. It is formed by adding *st* or *est* to the positive.
170. Adjectives of one syllable and many of more than one are thus compared:—

POSITIVE.	COMPARATIVE.	SUPERLATIVE.
High,	higher,	highest.
Sweet,	sweeter,	sweetest
Happy,	happier,	happiest.

Compare in this manner:—long, safe, light, heavy, broad, great, large, hot, noble, able, lofty

171. Most long words are compared by means of *more* and *most*; as, *beautiful*, *more beautiful*, *most beautiful*.

172. Diminution of quality is expressed by *less* and *least*; as, *less beautiful*, *least beautiful*.

The ending *ish* expresses a slight degree of quality; as, *blackish*, somewhat black; *sweetish*, a little sweet.

173. A high degree of quality is expressed by adding intensive words; as, *very* dark, *extremely* cold, *exceedingly* industrious.

This is called the *superlative of eminence*.

174. A few adjectives are defective in some of their degrees, which are supplied by other words as, *good*, *better*, *best*. *Good* is defective in the comparative and superlative, *better* in the positive. *Bet* is found in Saxon as an adverb meaning better. *Best* is for *betst*.

They are:—

<i>Positive.</i>	<i>Comparative.</i>	<i>Superlative.</i>
Good,	better,	best.
Bad, ill or evil,	worse,	worst.
Much, or many,	more,	most.
Little,	less, or lesser,	least.

A few adjectives are irregular but not defective; as,

Aft,	after,	aftermost.
Far,	farther,	farthest.
Fore,	former,	foremost, first.
(Forth,)	further,	furthest.
Hind.	hinder,	hindmost, hindermost.
Late,	later,	latest, or last.
Low,	lower,	lowest, lowermost.
Near.	nearer,	nearest, next.

176. Some adjectives add *most* to form the superlative; as, hind, hinder, hindermost.

177. Some are defective in the positive forming their comparative and superlative from adverbs; as,

(Out,)	outer, or utter,	outmost, utmost.
(In,)	inner,	innermost, inmost.
	hither,	hithermost.
[(Be)neath,]	nether,	nethermost.
	under,	undermost.
Rear,		rearmost.

Like *rear* are compared, *front*, *mid*, *middle*, *north*, *south*, *east*, *west*, *northern*, *southern*, *eastern*, *western*.

178. In the double forms, *much* is used in speaking of quantity, *many* of number; *nearest* is used in reference to place; *next*, to time; *later* and *latest*, in reference to time; *latter* and *last*, to order; *further* means more in front; *farther*, more distant.

179. A few descriptive adjectives cannot be

compared; as, *Almighty, chief, circular, continual, dead, empty, everlasting, eternal, false, free, infinite, natural, perfect, solid, sound, square, free, &c.*

1. Some of these are used by good writers in different degrees, as "A more perfect resemblance," &c.

2. In fact these words do not express absolute ideas, but only approximate, so that they may sometimes admit of degrees.

Compare these adjectives:—

High, small, great, grateful, unmindful, cheerful, attractive, lofty, generous, extravagant, penurious.

EXERCISES.

MODEL. *The Swiss hunters of this mountain region are the most enduring of all.* *Swiss* is a proper adjective and modifies *hunters*, by Rule VI. *This* is a definitive adjective, demonstrative kind, and modifies *region*. *Mountain* is a noun used as descriptive adjective and modifies *region*. *Most enduring* is verbal adjective, comparative degree, and modifies *hunters*.

This site commands an extensive view of both sides of the river. Every leaf and every twig teems with life. Homer was the greater genius; Virgil, the better artist. Wisdom is better than rubies (are.) The best and wisest men sometimes err. A long, cold ride brought us to a most comfortable inn.

CHAPTER XV.

ARTICLES.

180. *A* or *an*, and *the* are called *Articles*.

They are of the same origin as the definitive adjectives *one* and *that* and modify nouns like them.

They cannot like *that* form the subject of a proposition, nor like adjectives form its predicate. Hence they must be classed by themselves.

The word *article* means a *joint*.*

181. The term is of Greek origin and refers to the connection of clauses by means of the relation between the article and relative: as, "*The man, who is good, is happy,*" or more closely *the man that*.

1. The same is the Saxon construction, "*Se mann se the.*" "*The man the who, (he who,) or the that,*" "*the man that.*"

2. This relation still remains, expressed or understood; as, *The man*—of whom we have spoken. *The boy*—that you saw.

3. Certain words which are definite in themselves, do not require this reference; as, *The President. The horse* when the species is meant, &c.

182. *A* or *an* is called the *indefinite article*, since it points out no particular person or thing.

It is from the Saxon *an*, Scotch *ane*, one.

183. *An* is used before vowel sounds, but drops the *n* before consonant sounds; as, *An apple, an inkstand, an hour, a horse, a man.*

184. *The* is from the same root as *that*.*

*It is thus declined in Saxon:

<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>	<i>Neuter.</i>	<i>Plural in all genders.</i>
<i>Nom.</i> , Se,	seo,	thaet.	<i>Nom.</i> , Tha.
<i>Gen.</i> , Thaes,	thaere,	thaes.	<i>Gen.</i> , Thara.
<i>Dat.</i> , Tham,	thaere,	tham.	<i>Dat.</i> , Thau.
<i>Acc.</i> , Thone,	tha,	thaet.	<i>Acc.</i> , Tha.

There was also a form *the* which was indeclinable, from which ours has, perhaps, been imitated, not derived.

The is called the definite article, since it points out some particular object; as, "He has gone to *the store*," that is, the store that is well known or has been mentioned.

185. *A* or *an* can stand only with singular nouns, *the* with both singular and plural.

186. The noun without an article is taken in its widest sense; as, *man* means all men, the race of men; *a man* means some one but no particular man; *the man* means a particular man that has been spoken of before.

187 The difference between *a* and *the* is well shown in this example: "Two men went up in the temple to pray the one *a* Pharisee and the other *a* publican. But *the* Pharisee stood, &c. And *the* publican standing afar off," &c.

Here "a Pharisee" and "a publican" are individuals of a class, but "the Pharisee" and "the publican," are those who have just been mentioned and are now definite individuals.

Articles modify nouns by Rules VII, and VIII.

Rule VII. *The indefinite article modifies nouns in the singular number*

Rule VIII. *The definite article modifies nouns in the singular or plural number.*

EXERCISES FOR CORRECTION.

A inkstand. A hour. An hand. An hill. A ox.
A caps. An oxen. An oxen came down the hill
drawing an cart. An horse is an useful animal. A
inkstand was on an book. A honest man sold me
a ox. A old coat is an useless garment. She has
an handsome goat and an eve.

CHAPTER XVI.

VERBS.

188. The verb is a word that by itself may form the predicate of a proposition.

It declares what *is* or *is done*.

Its principal use is to *assert*, hence it may be defined thus:—

The verb is a word that asserts something.

189. The *verb* is the name of an *action*, while the *noun* is the name of a *substance*.

1. With the name of an action it unites the power of assertion, which alone makes it a verb.

2. In the higher forms of language, to which ours primarily belongs, the verb consists of two parts, a *root* and a *termination*. This termination is a pronominal root, which points out the person in regard to whom assertion is made.

3. Assertion is a mental act, effected, so far as form is concerned, by the union of these two elements.*

4. In English it is a purely mental act; as in *I read*, the mind refers *read* at once to *I*.

Our terminations are nearly all lost.

SECTION I. CLASSES OF VERBS.

190. In respect to the proposition, verbs are divided into two classes, *Abstract* and *Concrete*.

191. Abstract verbs do not of themselves form the predicates of propositions, but serve as copulas to connect the subject and predicate; as, "The apple *is* sweet." "He *seems* well." "He *appears* cold."

**Anami* [compare *amabam(i) amem(i)*] the archaic form of the Latin *amo*, consists of the stem *ama*, expressing the general idea *loving*, with the pronominal ending *mi of* or *from me*, and is equal to *loving, proceeding from me* or *I love*. This has been shown by a wide induction of facts.

1. *Is*, when asserting *being*, may form the predicate; as, "God *is*," "I *am*." Otherwise it is the most abstract of all verbs, and hence is used in most languages to express the *copula*.

2. Abstract verbs, like pronouns, express the *form* and *relations*, but not the substance.

192. Concrete verbs are those which can form the predicate.

They combine both *substance* and *form*, as the concrete noun combines *substance* and *qualities*.

193. In respect to modification, verbs are divided into two classes, complete and incomplete, or Intransitive and Transitive.

194. Complete verbs are those that do not require the addition of an object to complete the sense; as, "John runs." "The rain falls."

195. Incomplete verbs are those that require the addition of an object to complete the sense; as, "He reads a paper, book, or letter."

196. Transitive means *passing over*; intransitive, *not passing over*.

197. The incomplete verbs are called transitive because, physically speaking, their action passes over from the subject to the object.*

198. The transitive or incomplete verbs are those that require the addition of an object to complete the sense.

*This is true in regard to the action, as in "John strikes William;" but language is the expression of thought, and Grammar has reference to the means used in expressing thought and not to actions.

In the proposition "John strikes William," it is *strikes* that is modified by *William* and not *William* by *strikes*, hence in Grammar the terms *transitive* and *intransitive* do not express the exact state of the case. They will be used because custom has fixed them in our books.

199. The Intransitive or complete verbs are those that do not require the addition of an object to complete the sense.

200. Transitive verbs are called *objective*, since their action terminates in an object: intransitives are termed *subjective*, since their action terminates in the subject.

201. A few intransitive verbs require a modification to complete the sense; as, he *behaves well* or *ill* or he *behaves himself*. In the last case the action still ends in the subject, and it belongs to the subjective or intransitive verbs. They are called reflexive verbs.

They are such as *behaves, bestir, bethink, boast, delight, exercise, foresee, fret, repent, and vaunt*.

1. Others are both reflexive and transitive; as I *examine myself*, I *examine him*. They are such as, *examine, honor, purify, kill, praise, &c.*

2. A few intransitives by a change of form become transitive; as, "The tree falls." "He *fell* the tree," that is, causes it to fall. "It lies there." "He *lays* it there," that is, causes it to lie. They are called causative verbs.

3. Others do not change their form; as, "The ship sinks." "The pirate *sinks* the ship." "Fire *burns* wood." "The wood *burns*." "The man *burns* wood," that is, causes it to burn.

SECTION II. THE VOICES.

202. Transitive verbs have two forms, called the *active* and *passive* voices.

203. In the active voice the subject is represented as acting upon some object; as, "John strikes William."

204. In the passive voice the subject is represented as being acted upon; as, "William is struck by John." The object of the active voice becomes the subject of the passive.

1. The passive is a convenient form of expression, when we wish to state what has been done

without naming the actor; as, "John has been struck."

2. Intransitive verbs do not admit the passive voice since they have no object.

3. There are a few forms like "He is gone," "He is come," which appear like a passive voice of intransitive verbs.

They seem to have arisen in this way. About the beginning of the 9th century, the German began to form its perfect tense of *transitive verbs* by means of a participle and the verb *have*; and of *intransitive verbs*, by means of the participle and the verb *be*.

4. In French a somewhat similar usage prevails, derived, probably, from a German origin. These forms have thus been transmitted to us, not as passives, but as peculiar active forms of the perfect tense, equivalent to "He has gone." "He has come," which should now be used in their stead.

5. In Saxon there is no passive voice, but the participle agrees with the subject like an adjective. Sometimes also with the object.

6. The terms *active* and *passive* are borrowed from those languages that have terminations to express these relations; as in Latin *rego* I rule, *regor* I am ruled.

7. In that sense we have no passive. Its sense is expressed by the compound forms *I am learned*. *I have been loved*. *Learned* and *loved* might be parsed as participles referring to the subject and forming the predicates of the sentences.

SECTION III. THE MODES.

205. Assertion may be made in various ways:

1. When I say, "John reads," "I am," I assert something positively, as actual.

2. When I say, "I may go," "I can learn," "he could run," I assert something as possible.

3. When I say "If it rains;" "if he study," I assert something as a condition.

4. When I say "Go"; "come here," I assert something as necessary, in the form of a command.

206. These four forms of assertion, as *actual*, *possible*, *conditionat*, and *necessary*, are called *Modes*. The word *mode* means manner.

They distinguish the *manner* of the action or state asserted.

207 There are four Modes, *Indicative*, *Potential*, *Subjunctive*, and *Imperative*.*

1. The *Indicative* is used to assert positively

2. The *Potential* asserts power, ability, or necessity.

3. The *Subjunctive* expresses or implies a condition; as, "*If he study he will learn.*"

*1. The determination of the number of modes is one of the most difficult points in Grammar.

They must be limited to the forms that assert, thus excluding the infinitives and participles, which are properly verbal nouns and adjectives.

2. The Anglo-Saxon had three modes; the Indicative, Subjunctive, and Imperative.

It had also the Infinitive, as *lofian*, to love; the Supine, as *To lofigenne* to love; the Indefinite Participle, as *lofigend*, loving; and the Perfect Participle, *lofod* loved.

3. The indicative and subjunctive modes were found in two tenses only, the Indefinite and the Perfect

4. Of these we have the *Indicative*; the *Subjunctive indefinite*, rarely in conditional sentences; the *Imperative*; the *Infinitive*, love, in *I may love*, &c.; the *Supine*, to love; and the *Participles*.

5. Besides these we have compound forms of two classes. First, those formed of the Perfect Participle of any verb and the verb *have*. Second, those compounded of *shall*, *will*, *may*, *can*, *must*, and the simple infinitives.

Of the last, those with *shall* and *will* are called *future Indicative* tenses. The rest are by some classed with the Indicative; by others they are made to form the *Potential* mode.

6. Historically, the forms of the second class are indicative tenses followed by the simple infinitive.

7. These verbs *shall*, *will*, &c., now differ from others, in that they cannot of themselves make an assertion, but require an

4. The Imperative mode expresses a command, exhortation, or entreaty.

SECTION IV THE PARTICIPIALS.

208. There are certain forms attached to nearly all verbs which do not assert, and are therefore not modes.

1. They are Infinitives, Participles, and Verbal Noun.

2. These are called *Participials*.

3. *Participle* and *participial* mean partaking of.

4. The infinitives and verbal noun partake of the nature of the *verb* and *noun*: the participles partake of the nature of the *verb* and *adjective*.

210. The Infinitive is found in two forms:

1. First, the simple infinitive derived from

infinitive modifiers. Except *to* which is sometimes used in a complete assertion: as, "He wished it to be so."

We must either reject all the compound tenses, the figures included, and analyze them into their separate parts, or adopt them as compound forms. Either *may* be done. The latter is the usual method.

5. Shall we class them all as indicative forms, or divide them into indicative and potential?

6. "I shall go," "you shall go," assert positively and are indicative forms. "I may go," "We might go," assert possibility, and may be conventionally called *Potential* forms.

7. The Subjunctive was marked by not varying in the present tense.

8. It is found only in the present and past tenses of the verb *to be*, and the present tense of other verbs.

9. *If* puts no verb in the subjunctive mode, but merely introduces a conditional proposition.

10. The subjunctive is found only in the conditional propositions: but even there the indicative has nearly taken its place. In *if he learn*, *learn* is in the subjunctive. In *if he learns*, *learns* is in the indicative.

the regular Saxon infinitive. It is used after *may, can, must, will, shall, let, make, have, need, do, dare, bid, help, see, hear, feel.*

2. Second, the infinitive with *to* or the prepositional infinitive.

3. As shown above, (207 note.) the Saxon infinitive of love was *lufian*, while the *supine* was *to lufigenne* or *to lufienne*. From this comes our English *to love*. This form has nearly taken the place of the true infinitive.

4. Its proper name is the *Supine*.

211. The Verbal noun ended in *ung*, afterwards in *ing*. It is distinguished from the participle in *ing* by its ability to form the subject of a proposition, which the participle cannot do; as. "*Writing* is fatiguing."

1. It is a participial, because it receives the modifications of the verb; as. "*Writing letters* is a pleasant employment."

2. The verbal noun is closely connected in meaning with the infinitive, and may be traced back to the Gothic infinitive; as. "I love to play." "I love playing." "To play is pleasant." or "playing is pleasant."

212. The Participle like the adjective, expresses both the predicate and the attribute: as. "The sun is *rising*." "The *rising* sun." "The man is *learned*." "The *learned* man."

1. Like a verb it denotes the completion or incompleteness of an action; has the distinction of voice, and receives the same modifiers that it does.

2. There are three participles, the Imperfect *loving*, the Perfect *loved*, and the Compound *having loved*.

213. The Imperfect represents an action or state as continuing, the Perfect, as finished.

1. The Imperfect participle ends in *ing*.

In Saxon it ended in *ende*. In Old English we have *ande* and *and*; as, "He prechyde sayande," he preached saying. "Hors, or hund or othir thing."

"That was pleasand to their liking."—BRUCE, 1357

Here *pleasand* is the participle and *liking* the verbal noun.

There are such forms as *eriande*, crying; *lepande*, leaping; *livand*, living in Chancer: and *glitterand*, glittering in Spenser. Also *playand* in Sir Richard Maitland who died in 1589.

2. In some way not exactly known, the ending of the participle has been lost, and the ending of the verbal noun has been taken for both. The ending of the participle, it is said, still survives in the English dialects, in such forms as *doand*, *strikind* for doing, striking.

3. The Perfect participle of most verbs ends in *ed*.

SECTION V THE TENSES.

214. There are three divisions of time, present, past, and future

215. In each of these an action may be represented as indefinite, continuing, or completed

"He writes," that is, "he is accustomed to do it," is indefinite; "he is writing" is continuous or progressive; "he has written" is completed.

216. The forms of the verb made use of to express these relations are called tenses

The word *tense* means *time*.

The tense forms in English denotes not only the relations of time, but also the completion or incompleteness of the action or state asserted.

217 There are six tenses, the Present, Past, Future, Present Perfect, Past Perfect and Future Perfect.

The *Present*, *Past*, and *Future* express indefinite action ; the others express completed action.

Progressive action is expressed by joining the Imperfect participle to the forms of the verb *be* or *am*.

218. The Saxon, in common with the other German languages had but two tenses, the Indefinite and the Perfect or *preterit*.

The Indefinite denoted present or future time ; the Perfect, any past time according to the structure of the sentence.

219. *Our* tenses are divided into two classes, simple and compound.

The simple tenses are the *Present* and *Past*, which are like the Saxon indefinite.

The compound tenses are of two kinds, those formed with *have*, and those formed with *shall* and *will*.

220. The first are the *Present* and *Past Perfects* ; as, "I have learned," "I had learned."

They are compounded of *have* and its past *had*, and the Perfect participle of any verb.

221. They evidently arose in this way. The participle at first was used only after transitive verbs and agreed with the object, but was gradually and insensibly applied to all verbs, and its connection with the object lost sight of.*

222. The second are the *future* tenses, which are compounded of *shall* and *will* and the tenses

*For example we have in Saxon, "*Hine hæfde he gesetenne.*" "Him had he set." *Gesetenne* agrees with the object *hine*."

As if we should say in English, "I have a letter written," and pass from that to "I have written a letter."

of the infinitive; as, "I shall learn," "I shall have learned."

Their original construction is that of infinitives depending upon principal verbs. In fact they might still be parsed in that manner.

223. There are also compound forms, composed of the auxiliary *do* and its past tense *did*, which are used to express emphasis; as, "I do learn," "I did learn."

THE PRESENT TENSE.

224. The Present Tense denotes present time.

1. The simple form is indefinite and asserts what is true and customary; as, "He writes well," that is, "He is accustomed to do it." "God is." "Truth is eternal."

It also expresses a progressive action; as, "He breathes slowly."

2. The progressive form asserts what is now going on; as, "He is writing," "I am studying my lesson."

3. *I do write* is the emphatic form.

4. The Present is used in reference to past actions to give animation to discourse; as, "He *enters* the territory of the peaceful inhabitants, he *fights*, he *conquers*," &c.

5. It is used in regard to persons long since dead whose works still exist; as, "Cicero *writes* elegantly."

6. With certain adverbs of time it refers to future events; as, "When he arrives, he will hear the news." "He goes *to-morrow*."

7. The simple form might be called the Indefinite tense, since it may be used in reference to any time. The progressive forms alone mark time actually passing. It is on account of its indefinite meaning that it may be used in the 4th, 5th, and 6th cases.

THE PAST TENSE.

225. The Past Tense denotes past time.

1. The simple form represents an action merely as past; as, "I wrote." "He studied."

2. The progressive form represents an action as going on, at some past time mentioned; as, "He was writing, when we came."

This is the Imperfect tense of other languages. The simple form corresponds to the Greek *aorist*.

3. *I did write* is the emphatic form.

4. Most of the simple forms assert an action simply as past, while others in themselves indicate a progressive action; as, "The village master taught his little school," that is, "was teaching."

FORMATION OF THE PAST TENSE.

226. The Past tense is formed in two ways, by adding a syllable, as in *learn, learned*; and by changing the vowel of the present, as in *sing, sang*.

1. The second, by recent scholars, is called the *strong* form, and the first is called the *weak*.

2. The Past of weak verbs is formed by adding *d, t, or ed* to the present; as *learn-ed, love-d*; bend, *ben(d)t*; seek, *sough-t*; buy, *bough-t*.*

In reality as shown in the note it is a compound tense, whose "composition" is no longer evident.

3. The Present and Past are the only simple tenses, and strictly speaking, the only tenses of the English *verb*. The other relations of time are expressed by means of *helping words* or *auxiliaries*.

*In Saxon the weak verb added *de*; as, *lufian* to love, Indef. Pres. *lufige* I love, Perf. or Past *lufode* I loved. *Baernan* to burn; *lc baerne* I burn; *lc baernde*, I burned.

Bopp has shown that this and corresponding syllables in other German languages, is derived from the verb *do*, German *thun*, so that *loved* is equal to *I love did*.

THE COMPOUND TENSES.

• THE FUTURE.

227 The Future Tense denotes future time.

1. The simple form is indefinite and asserts merely that an action will take place hereafter; as, "I shall write."

2. It is composed of *shall* and *will* and the simple infinitive of any verb.

3. The progressive form asserts that an action will be going on at some future time; as, "I shall be writing when he arrives."

4. Future time is expressed in English in various ways. 1st. By the present; as, "I go to-morrow;" 2d. by means of *shall*; 3d. by means of *will*; 4th. by periphrastic forms; as, "I am going to study." "I am about to write."

228. Shall, Saxon *sceal* means to owe, to be necessary, " *Ic sceal fram the beon gefuðod.*" "I ought to be baptized by thee." *Beon* is the infinitive to be, and *gefuðod* the perfect participle.

"The faith I *shall* (I owe) to God."—CHAUCER.

1. There are instances in Saxon and Maeso-Gothic where the forms with *shall* had nearly the same meaning as now.

2. Shall is the only future auxiliary in old English.

3. *I shall go* means I ought to go, and, therefore, by implication, it will be done.

4. *Will* expresses the determination or will of the subject, and, through the expectation that it will be carried out, conveys a future meaning.

I will go means I am determined to go, and, therefore, it will be done.

5. *Will* has now taken the place of *shall* in the second and third persons of the predictive or ordinary future.

229. There are two forms of the Future, the *predictive* and the *promissive*.

1. *Shall* in the first person and *will* in the second and third simply foretell and form the *predictive*.

2. *Will* in the first person, and *shall* in the second and third refer to the will of the speaker, and form the *promissive* future.

COMPOUND TENSES WITH HAVE.

230. The compound tenses with *have* in their simple form denote an action completed at a certain time; as "I have written a letter to-day," that is, it is now finished.

"I had written a letter *before you came*." "I shall have written a letter *by the time you arrive*."

1. In the progressive form they denote an action which had been going on, but which was finished at a certain time; as, "He had been reading, before you came."

2. They are called perfect tenses since their action is completed at the time mentioned, or implied.

They are the Present Perfect, the Past Perfect, and the Future Perfect tenses.

THE PRESENT PERFECT.

231. The Present Perfect denotes, *first*, a completed action; *second*, an action completed in time connected with the present.

1. The first is the usual meaning; as, "A friend of mine whom *I have* formerly *mentioned*."—ADDISON. "And where the Atlantic rolls, wide continents *have bloomed*."—BYRON. "Privileges *have been granted* to legislators in all ages."—MANSFIELD. "I *have* read it frequently." "I *have been* young."

In this it corresponds to the indefinite present.

2. When *time* is referred to it must be connected with the present, otherwise it is completely indefinite.

3. Hence it cannot be used in reference to any particular past time. I cannot say, "I have written yesterday,"

but "I wrote yesterday," though I may say, "I have written," indefinitely, in reference to any past time.

4. When any past action is connected with the present by the existence of the author or the work, this tense is used; as, "Cicero has written orations;" but we say, "Cicero wrote poems," since they do not exist.

THE PAST PERFECT.

232. The Past Perfect Tense denotes an action finished before some past time mentioned; as, "I had written the letter, *before he came.*"

In its form it is the past tense of *have* together with the participle.

THE FUTURE PERFECT.

233. The Future Perfect Tense denotes an action or state that will be completed before some other action mentioned; as, "I shall have written my letter, before the mail arrives."

In its form it consists of the auxiliaries *shall* and *will* and the perfect infinitive.

234. A Synopsis is given by naming the first person singular in each tense.

SYNOPSIS OF LEARN.

<i>Simple Form.</i>	<i>Progressive Form.</i>
<i>Present</i> , I learn,	I am learning.
<i>Past</i> , I learned,	I was learning.
<i>Future</i> , I shall or will learn,	I shall or will be learning.
<i>Present Perfect</i> , I have learned	I have been learning.
<i>Past Perfect</i> , I had learned,	I had been learning.
<i>Future Perfect</i> , I shall have learned,	I shall have been learning,
Give a synopsis of <i>love, study, play, desire.</i>	

SECTION IV TENSES OF THE POTENTIAL.

235. The Potential mode has four forms, answering to the tenses of present and past time;

"I may go," "I might go," "I may have gone." "I might have gone."

They are, in their origin, indicative tenses of the verbs, *may*, *can*, *must*, (*shall*) *should*, and (*will*) *would*, followed by the simple infinitives.

236. A brief statement of the force of these verbs will help us to understand these forms.

1. *May* from Saxon *magan*; Pres. *Ic may*, I may; Past *Ic mihte*, I might; signifies *to be able*.

I may go means "I am able to go if nothing prevents."

You may go expresses permission, rarely doubt.

He may go expresses first, possibility; secondly, permission.

2. *Can* from *cunnan*; Pres. *Ic can*, I can; Past *Ic eudhe*, I could, signifies *to ken*, *to know how*, *to be able*.

I can go means I am able to go.

3. *Must*, Saxon *mot*, Old Eng. *mote*, signifies *ought*, it is necessary

4. *Might*, *could*, *would*, and *should* are the past tenses of *may*, *can*, *will*, and *shall*.

5. The forms with *may*, *can*, and *must* usually assert power, permission, necessity, or possibility; as, "He can go." "He may go." "He must go."

6. Generally, they imply a supposition or condition; as, "You can learn, if you will try." "I may go, if it does not rain."

7. They also denote the purpose or object of a preceding proposition; as, "He studies, that he may learn." "He commands, that you must study."

8. The forms with *might*, *could*, *would*, and *should* denote an hypothesis, which cannot be true or which is known not to be real; as, "He might study, if he would," but he does not. "He would come to see you, if he was at home," but he is not.

9. After past tenses they denote the purpose, or object; as, "He studies, that he might learn." "He wished, that he could go."

10. They are also used in their primary meaning; as, "I should be glad to see you." "He would have it done."

11. They are generally used after verbs in the past tense, but may also follow the indefinite present; as, "I think you would be pleased." "I wish I could approve his conduct." "He says, you should not conduct so."

12. In their primary sense the Potential forms are indicative in meaning; in their secondary and more common sense, they resemble the subjunctive of other languages.

13. The tenses of the Potential may be divided into two classes, those that express a condition, and those that express an hypothesis.

14. The conditional are the *Present*, and *Present Perfect*; the hypothetical are the *Past*, and *Past Perfect*.

237. In respect to time these tenses are indefinite, especially in the *Present* and *Past* forms.

1. The Present implies present or future time, according to the modifying words; as, "I can go now." "I may go to-morrow."

2. The Past implies present, past, or future time; as, *Present*, "I would go now if it were possible." *Past*, "I could not go last year." "He said last week I might go yesterday." *Future*, "You should by all means return next week."

3. The Present Perfect implies that an action may have taken place in past time; as, "James may have returned."

4. The Past Perfect implies that it was possible that an action might have taken place in past time; as, "He might have studied." "He could have returned."

238. SYNOPSIS OF LEARN IN THE POTENTIAL.

Present, I may, can, or must learn, or be learning.

Past, I might, could, would, or should learn, or be learning.

Pres. Perf., I may, can, or must have learned, or been learning.

Past Perf., I might, could, would, or should have learned, or been learning.

SECTION VI. TENSES OF THE SUBJUNCTIVE.

239. The Subjunctive anciently had two tenses, as shown in section 207, note. They were different in form from the indicative and did not change in the different persons.

1. It has nearly disappeared from the language.

2. It is found in the present and past tenses of *to be* and the present tense of other verbs.

3. It is used only in conditional sentences after *if, though, unless, except, whether, and lest*.

4. In the future conditional the distinction between *will* and *shall* is not observed, but *shall* is used through all the persons.

5. *If he learn, if thou learn* are subjunctive only in that they do not vary in the present.

6. "If he learn" means "if he shall learn," and has been called the Future contingent tense

7. The indicative form "if he learns" is now almost universally used in its place.

8. "If I be, if thou be, if he be," may be, and probably is, the Saxon subjunctive of the verb to be.*

9. The indicative forms of to be, "I be, thou beest, he be" are said to have had in Saxon a future meaning.

10. "If I were," is a true subjunctive in distinction from "If I was."

11. Like all past tenses in conditional sentences, it is hypothetical; as, "If he were studious he would improve," but he is not. It retains its hypothetical meaning when used without *if*. In this case it precedes its subject; as, "Were I," "Were you," "Were he."

The tenses of the Subjunctive are a *Present*, or *Contingent Future* and a *Hypothetical Past*.

Contingent Future. If I be. If I learn, if thou learn, if he learn.

Hypothetical Past. If I were. It has no reference to past time.

SECTION VII. TENSE OF THE IMPERATIVE.

249. The Imperative has but one tense, the Present.

1. All commands are made in present time, though they are executed in the future.

2. It expresses a command; as, "Love thou;" an exhortation, "Come ye to the waters;" an entreaty, "Return O Lord;" a wish, "O king live forever," "farewell," "good-bye;" permission, "Go in peace."

3. The verb itself is found only in the second person. The other persons may be represented by means of *let*, and by ellipses; as, "Let him

*The subjunctive of Saxon *com*, I am, was:—S. 1. *sy*; 2. *sy*; 3. *sy*. Pl. *syn*. The subjunctive of *beon*, to be was:—Sing. 1. *beo*; 2. *beo*; 3. *beo*. Pl. *beon*, the indicative S. 1. *beo*; 2. *byst*; 3. *byth*.

go." "Thy kingdom come," that is, "Let thy kingdom come." It agrees with *thou* or *you* expressed or understood.

4. The indicative mode springs from the reason and expresses a thought. The imperative springs from the will, and indulges in ellipses; as, *Come. Run. To arms. Right. Left, &c.*

SECTION VIII. TENSES OF THE PARTICIPIALS.

THE INFINITIVES.

241. The Infinitive, both simple and supine has two forms; Present, and Perfect.

1. The first expresses an action or state indefinitely without regard to time; as, "He desires to learn." "Eager to study." "He desired to write." "He will be ready to go."

2. The second expresses a completed action or state without reference to time.

3. The leading verb expresses the time, while the infinitive modifies it either like a noun or a clause. "Eager to study," means "eager that he may study." "He loves to read," or "He loves reading." "He reads to learn." "He reads that he may learn."

THE PARTICIPLES.

242. Intransitive verbs have three Participles; as, *running, run, having run*; called, the *imperfect, perfect, and compound*.

Running is the imperfect; *run*, the perfect; *having run*, the compound.

243. Transitive verbs have six participles, three active, and three passive; as active, *loving, loved, having loved*; passive, *being loved, loved, having been loved*.

244. The imperfect participle ends in *ing*, and denotes an action or state continuing in the time of the leading verb; as, "He was *reading*." "He entered *singing*."

245. The perfect participle implies an action or state completed.

1. In weak or regular verbs it ends in *ed* from Saxon *od*, as in *lufod* loved; in strong verbs it generally ends in *en*.

2. Many verbs in Saxon, in the past tense, changed the vowel of the singular, in the plural; as, *Ic sang*, I sung. *We sungon*, we sung. Whenever that occurred the participle was formed from the plural form; as, *findan* to find. Past Sing. *Ic fund*. Plural, *We fundon*. Perf. Part. *funden*.

3. In this manner the double forms of the past tense *sang*, *sung*; *rang*, *rung*, may be explained; one is derived from the singular and the other from the plural.

4. The form from the plural is the most common in English, probably from the influence of the participle.

5. The compound of the perfect denotes an action or state finished before some other; as, "Having learned my lesson, I went to school."

246. Much diversity of opinion exists in regard to the progressive passive participle, whether we shall say "the house is building," or "the house is being built."

The facts seem to be these. *Building* in "the house is building," is not a participle, but a verbal noun and the full expression would be, "The house is *a building*," or "in building." This form of expression prevailed from the rise of the English language until the beginning of the eighteenth century, when the preposition was dropped. It means "the house is in the process of building."

To avoid the supposed inconsistency in saying "The man is building a house," and "The house is building," the expression, "The house is being built," has been recently introduced. It is a clumsy expression and has not received the sanction of our best writers. If "Is build-

ing" is objected to, say "They are building a house," or use some similar expression. See particularly Marsh's Eng. Lang., p. 651.

SECTION IX. STRONG AND WEAK VERBS.

247. The principal parts of the verb are the Present, and Past indicative, and the Perfect Participle; as, *sing, sang, sung; learn, learned, learned*.

1. From these parts all the others are formed.

2. There are two methods of forming these parts and consequently two classes of verbs in respect to form.

3. They are commonly called the Regular and Irregular verbs.

4. The one changes the vowel to form the past tense, the other adds a syllable; as, *sing, sang; learn, learned*.

The first is the oldest form, and prevails through all the Germanic languages. The process is now obsolete, while the method by adding a syllable is now the vital process.

6. Verbs that change the vowel are called *strong*, because they form their parts within themselves.

7. Verbs that add a syllable are called *weak*, because they require an addition from without.

They add *d, t, or ed*, to form their principal parts.

8. The **Weak or Regular** verbs are those that add *d, t, or ed*, to form their past tense and perfect participle.

9. The **Strong or Irregular** verbs are those that do not add *d, t, or ed*, but change the vowel.

One class is just as *regular* as the other, hence the terms *regular* and *irregular* are objectionable.

SECTION X. THE NUMBERS AND PERSONS OF THE VERB.

248. The numbers and persons of the verb, in its complete form are shown by its endings.

These are, as has been said, pronominal roots.

As languages grow old they fall away or are forgotten, so that modern languages are nearly destitute of personal endings.

249. Verbs agree with their subjects in number and person and consequently have two numbers, singular and plural; and three persons, first, second, and third.

1. The sign of the first person *m* is found in *a-m*, alone.

2. The sign of the second is *st* or *est*; of the third *eth* or *th*, *es*, *s*.

3. The plural has no signs of person.

4. The signs of person are indirectly signs of number, since they are found only in the singular.

SECTION XI. THE AUXILIARY VERBS.

250. The Auxiliary verbs are *do*, *be*, *have*, *will*, *shall*, *may*, *can*, *must*.

1. They are called auxiliary, because by their help the principal verbs are conjugated.

2. *Do*, *be*, *have*, and *will*, are also used as principal verbs. *Do*, *be*, and *have*, when so used, are conjugated in full.

3. *Will*, *shall*, *may*, *can*, and *must*, are thus conjugated.

SINGULAR.			PLURAL.		
1st Person.	2d person.	3d person.	1st person.	2d person.	3d person.
I	Thou	He	We	You	They
<i>Pres.</i> , Will,	wilt,	will;	will,	will,	will.
<i>Past</i> , Would,	wouldest,	would;	would,	would,	would.
<i>Pres.</i> , Shall,	shalt,	shall;	shall,	shall,	shall.
<i>Past</i> , Should,	shouldest,	should;	should,	should,	should.
<i>Pres.</i> , May,	mayst,	may;	may,	may,	may.
<i>Past</i> , Might,	mightest,	might;	might,	might,	might.
<i>Pres.</i> , Can,	canst,	can;	can,	can,	can.
<i>Past</i> , Could,	couldest,	could;	could,	could,	could.
<i>Pres.</i> , Must,	must,	must;	must,	must,	must.

251. The conjugation of the verb is the regular arrangement of its voices, modes, tenses, numbers, and persons.

SECTION XII. CONJUGATION OF THE VERB BE OR AM.

252. The verb *be* or *am* is defective. Its parts are made up of the verbs *am*, *be*, and *was*.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Present, Am; *Past*, Was; *Perf Part.*, Been.

INDICATIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1st Person, I am,	1st Person., We are,
2d Person, Thou art,	2d Person., You are,
3d Person, He is;	3d Person., They are.

PAST TENSE.

1. I was,	1. We were,
2. Thou wast,	2. You were,
3. He was;	3. They were.

FUTURE TENSE PREDICTIVE.

*Singular.**Plural.*

- | | |
|-----------------|-----------------|
| 1 I shall be, | 1 We shall be, |
| 2 Thou wilt be, | 2 You will be, |
| 3 He will be ; | 3 They will be. |

FUTURE TENSE PROMISSIVE.

- | | |
|------------------|------------------|
| 1 I will be, | 1 We will be, |
| 2 Thou shalt be, | 2 You shall be, |
| 3 He shall be ; | 3 They shall be. |

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE.

- | | |
|-------------------|-------------------|
| 1 I have been, | 1 We have been, |
| 2 Thou hast been, | 2 You have been, |
| 3 He has been ; | 3 They have been. |

PAST PERFECT TENSE.

- | | |
|--------------------|------------------|
| 1 I had been, | 1 We had been, |
| 2 Thou hadst been, | 2 You had been, |
| 3 He had been ; | 3 They had been. |

FUTURE PERFECT TENSE PREDICTIVE.

- | | |
|------------------------|------------------------|
| 1 I shall have been, | 1 We shall have been, |
| 2 Thou wilt have been, | 2 You will have been, |
| 3 He will have been ; | 3 They will have been. |

FUTURE PERFECT TENSE PROMISSIVE.

- | | |
|-------------------------|-------------------------|
| 1 I will have been, | 1 We will have been, |
| 2 Thou shalt have been, | 2 You shall have been, |
| 3 He shall have been ; | 3 They shall have been. |

POTENTIAL MODE.

PRESENT.

Signs,—may, can, must. Inflect with each.

- | | |
|-------------------|----------------|
| 1 I may be, | 1 We may be, |
| 2 Thou mayest be, | 2 You may be, |
| 3 He may be ; | 3 They may be. |

PAST.

Signs,—might, could, would, and should.
Inflect with each.

Singular.

- 1 I might be,
- 2 Thou mightst be,
- 3 He might be;

Plural.

- 1 We might be,
- 2 You might be,
- 3 They might be.

PRESENT PERFECT.

Signs.—may have, can have, must have.

- | | |
|-------------------------|-----------------------|
| 1 I may have been, | 1 We may have been, |
| 2 Thou mayst have been; | 2 You may have been, |
| 3 He may have been; | 3 They may have been. |

PAST PERFECT.

Signs.—might have, could have, would have, should have.

- | | |
|---------------------------|-------------------------|
| 1 I might have been, | 1 We might have been, |
| 2 Thou mightst have been, | 2 You might have been, |
| 3 He might have been; | 3 They might have been. |

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE,

CONTINGENT FUTURE OR PRESENT.

- | | |
|---------------|---------------|
| 1 If I be, | 1 If we be, |
| 2 If thou be, | 2 If you be, |
| 3 If he be; | 3 If they be. |

HYPOTHETICAL FORM OR PAST.

- | | |
|-----------------|-----------------|
| 1 If I were, | 1 If we were, |
| 2 If thou wert, | 2 If you were, |
| 3 If he were; | 3 If they were. |

IMPERATIVE MODE.

- | | |
|-------------------|-----------------|
| 2 Be thou or you, | 2 Be ye or you. |
|-------------------|-----------------|

INFINITIVES.

Present, To be.

Perfect, To have been.

PARTICIPLES.

Imperfect, Being. Perfect Been. Compound, Having been.

SYNOPSIS.

Indicative.

Present, I am.

Past, I was.

Future, I shall or will be.

Pres. Perf., I have been.

Past Perf., I had been.

Fut. Perf., I shall or will have been.

Potential.

Present, I may can or must be.

Past, I might be.

Pres Perf., I may have been.

Past Perf., I might have been.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Present, If I be.

Past, If I were.

IMPERATIVE.

Sin., 2. Be thou.

Plu., 2. Be you.

INFINITIVES.

Pres., To be.

Perf., To have been.

PARTICIPLES.

Imperfect, Being. Perf., Been. Compound, Having been.

SECTION XIII. CONJUGATION OF THE VERB LOVE.

253.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Pres., Love; Past, Loved; Perf. Participle, Loved.

INDICATIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.

1 I love,

2 Thou lovest,

3 He loves;

Plural.

1 We love,

2 You love,

3 They love.

PAST TENSE.

1 I loved,

2 Thou lovedst,

2 He loved;

1 We loved,

2 You loved,

3 They loved.

FUTURE TENSE.

Let the pupil give the predictive and promissive forms separately.

Singular.

Plural.

- | | |
|----------------------------|----------------------------|
| 1 I shall or will love, | 1 We shall or will love, |
| 2 Thou shalt or wilt love, | 2 You shall or will love. |
| 3 He shall or will love; | 3 They shall or will love. |

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE.

- | | |
|--------------------|--------------------|
| 1 I had loved, | 1 We have loved, |
| 2 Thou hast loved, | 2 You have loved, |
| 3 He has loved; | 3 They have loved. |

PAST PERFECT TENSE.

Singular.

Plural.

- | | |
|---------------------|-------------------|
| 1 I had loved, | 1 We had loved, |
| 2 Thou hadst loved, | 2 You had loved. |
| 3 He had loved; | 3 They had loved, |

FUTURE PERFECT TENSE.

- | | |
|--------------------------------|---------------------------|
| 1 I shall or will have loved, | 1 We shall or will have |
| 2 Thou shalt or wilt have | loved, |
| loved, | 2 You shall or will have |
| 3 He shall or will have loved; | loved, |
| | 3 They shall or will have |
| | loved. |

POTENTIAL MODE.

PRESENT.

- | | |
|---------------------|------------------|
| 1 I may love, | 1 We may love, |
| 2 Thou mayest love, | 2 You may love, |
| 3 He may love; | 3 They may love. |

PAST.

- | | |
|----------------------|--------------------|
| 1 I might love, | 1 We might love, |
| 2 Thou mightst love, | 2 You might love, |
| 3 He might love; | 3 They might love. |

PRESENT PERFECT.

*Singular.**Plural.*

- | | |
|--------------------------|------------------------|
| 1 I may have loved, | 1 We may have loved, |
| 2 Thou mayst have loved, | 2 You may have loved, |
| 3 He may have loved; | 3 They may have loved. |

PAST PERFECT.

- | | |
|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1 We might have loved, | 1 We might have loved, |
| 2 You might have loved, | 2 You might have loved, |
| 3 They might have loved; | 3 They might have loved. |

SUBJUNCTIVE,

CONTINGENT FUTURE OR PRESENT.

- | | |
|-----------------|-----------------|
| 1 If I love, | 1 If we love, |
| 2 If thou love, | 2 If you love, |
| 3 If he love ; | 3 If they love. |

IMPERATIVE.

- | | |
|--------------------|-------------------|
| 2 Love thou or you | 2 Love ye or you. |
|--------------------|-------------------|

INFINITIVES.

- | | |
|---------------------------|---------------------------------|
| <i>Present</i> , to love. | <i>Perfect</i> , To have loved. |
|---------------------------|---------------------------------|

PARTICIPLES.

Imperfect Loving; *Perfect* Loved; *Compound* Having Loved
 Conjugate like love the verbs *learn*, *study*, *move*.

THE PROGRESSIVE FORM.

254. The Progressive form is conjugated by adding the Imperfect Participle of any verb to the forms of the verb *to be*.

SYNOPSIS OF LOVE, PROGRESSIVE FORM.

*Indicative.**Potential.*

- | | |
|--|---|
| <i>Present</i> , I am loving. | <i>Pres.</i> , I may be loving. |
| <i>Past</i> , I was loving. | <i>Past</i> , I might be loving. |
| <i>Fut.</i> , I shall or will be loving. | <i>Pres Perf.</i> , I may have been loving. |
| <i>Pres. Perf.</i> , I have been loving. | |
| <i>Past Perf.</i> , I had been loving. | <i>Past Perf.</i> , I might have been loving. |
| <i>Fut Perf.</i> , I shall have been loving. | |

SUBJUNCTIVE.

*Contingent Future or Present, If I be loving.**Hypothetical or Past, If I were loving.*

IMPERATIVE.

2 Be thou or you loving. 2. Be ye or you loving.

INFINITIVES.

*Present, To be loving.**Perfect, To have been loving.*

Conjugate these forms through all the numbers and persons.

SECTION XIV CONJUGATION OF LEARN IN THE PASSIVE VOICE.

255. The Passive voice is conjugated by joining the Perfect Participle of any verb to the forms of the verb *to be*.

INDICATIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

*Singular.**Plural.*

1 I am learned,

1 We are learned,

2 Thou art learned,

2 You are learned,

3 He is learned;

3 They are learned.

PAST TENSE.

1 I was learned,

1 We were learned,

2 Thou wast learned,

2 You were learned,

3 He was learned;

3 They were learned.

FUTURE TENSE, PREDICTIVE FORM.

1 I shall be learned,

1 We shall be learned,

2 Thou wilt be learned,

2 You shall be learned,

3 He will be learned;

3 They will be learned.

FUTURE TENSE PROMISSIVE.

*Singular.**Plural.*

- | | |
|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1 I will be learned, | 1 We shall be learned, |
| 2 Thou shalt be learned, | 2 You shall be learned, |
| 3 He shall be learned; | 3 They shall be learned. |

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE.

- | | |
|---------------------------|---------------------------|
| 1 I have been learned, | 1 We have been learned, |
| 2 Thou hast been learned, | 2 You have been learned, |
| 3 He has been learned; | 3 They have been learned. |

PAST PERFECT TENSE.

- | | |
|----------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1 I had been learned, | 1 We had been learned, |
| 2 Thou hadst been learned, | 2 You had been learned. |
| 3 He had been learned; | 3 They had been learned. |

FUTURE PERFECT TENSE (PREDICTIVE FORM.)

- | | |
|--------------------------------|--------------------------------|
| 1 I shall have been learned, | 1 We shall have been learned, |
| 2 Thou wilt have been learned, | 2 You will have been learned, |
| 3 He will have been learned; | 3 They will have been learned. |

Let the pupil give the promissive form.

POTENTIAL MODE.

PRESENT.

- | | |
|--------------------------|------------------------|
| 1 I may be learned, | 1 We may be learned, |
| 2 Thou mayst be learned, | 2 You may be learned, |
| 3 He may be learned; | 3 They may be learned. |

PAST.

- | | |
|----------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1 I might be learned, | 1 We might be learned, |
| 2 Thou mightst be learned, | 2 You might be learned, |
| 3 He might be learned; | 3 They might be learned. |

PRESENT PERFECT.

- | | |
|---------------------------------|-------------------------------|
| 1 I may have been learned, | 1 We may have been learned, |
| 2 Thou mayst have been learned, | 2 You may have been learned, |
| 3 He may have been learned; | 3 They may have been learned. |

PAST PERFECT.

Singular.

Plural.

- | | |
|-----------------------------------|---------------------------------|
| 1 I might have been learned, | 1 We might have been learned, |
| 2 Thou mightst have been learned. | 2 You might have been learned. |
| 3 He might have been learned | 3 They might have been learned. |

SUBJUNCTIVE.

CONTINGENT FUTURE OR PRESENT.

- | | |
|-----------------------|-----------------------|
| 1 If I be learned, | 1 If we be learned, |
| 2 If thou be learned. | 2 If you be learned, |
| 3 If he be learned; | 3 If they be learned. |

HYPOTHETICAL FORM OR PAST.

- | | |
|-------------------------|-------------------------|
| 1 If I were learned, | 1 If we were learned, |
| 2 If thou wert learned, | 2 If you were learned, |
| 3 If he were learned; | 3 If they were learned. |

IMPERATIVE.

- 2 Be thou or you learned. 2 Be ye or you learned.

INFINITIVES.

Present, To be learned. *Perfect*, To have been learned.

PARTICIPLES.

Imperfect, Being learned; *Perfect*, Learned;
Compound, Having been learned.

Inflect in like manner, *love*, *play*, *move*.

EXERCISES.

MODEL. *Studied* is a verb, it asserts something; weak or regular, it adds *ed* to form its past tense; transitive, it requires an object; indicative mode, it asserts positively; past tense, it denotes past time; third singular to agree with *James*, by Rule II.

James studies his lesson. They are blamed.
 We were esteemed. He has heard the news.
 James was praised for his diligence. They will be

loved because they are good. You may be seated. They might learn if they would study. The work will have been finished by noon. I may go if it does not rain. Were I he I would not permit it.

Write sentences describing a door, an orange, the stove, a slate, an oak tree, a pine tree, &c.

Let the teacher assign exercises upon other familiar objects.

256. SECTION XIV CONJUGATION OF THE VERB TAKE.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Present, Take; *Past*, Took; *Perf. Part.*, Taken.

INDICATIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.

- 1 I take.
- 2 Thou takest.
- 3 He takes;

Plural.

- 1 We take,
- 2 You take,
- 3 They take.

PAST TENSE.

- 1 I took,
- 2 Thou tookest,
- 3 He took;

- 1 We took,
- 2 You took,
- 3 They took.

FUTURE TENSE. *Give both forms.*

- 1 I shall take, &c.

- 1 We shall take, &c.

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE.

- 1 I have taken, &c.

- 1 We have taken, &c.

PAST PERFECT TENSE.

- 1 I had taken, &c.

- 1 We had taken, &c.

FUTURE PERFECT TENSE.

- 1 I shall have taken, &c.

- I We shall have taken, &c.

POTENTIAL MODE.

PRESENT.

*Singular.**Plural.*

1 I may, can, or must take. 1 We may, can, or must take.

PAST.

1 I might take.

1 We might take.

PRESENT PERFECT.

1 I may have taken.

1 We may have taken.

PAST PERFECT,

1 I might have taken.

1 We might have taken.

IMPERATIVE.

2 Take thou or you.

2 Take ye or you.

INFINITIVE.

Present, To take.*Perfect*, To have taken.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

CONT. FUT. OR PRES.

1 If I take.

1 If we take.

PARTICIPLES.

Imperfect, Taking;*Perfect*, Taken;*Compound*, Having taken.

257. The Indicative and Potential modes are used in asking questions.

258. Learn is conjugated interrogatively as follows:—

*Indicative.**Potential.**Present*, Do I learn?*Present*, May I learn?*Past*, Did I learn?*Past*, Might I learn?*Future*, Shall I learn?*Pres. Perf.*, May I have*Pres. Perf.*, Have I learned?

learned?

Past Perf., Had I learned?*Past Perf.*, Might I have*Fut. Perf.*, Shall I have

learned?

learned?

Also, am I learning? Was I learning? &c.

259. Verbs are conjugated negatively as follows:—

*Indicative.**Potential.*

<i>Pres.</i> , I love not, am not lov-	<i>Pres.</i> , I may not love.
ing, do not love.	<i>Past</i> , I might not love.
<i>Past</i> , I loved not, was not lov-	<i>Pres Perf.</i> , I may not have
ing, did not love.	loved.
<i>Fut.</i> , I shall not love, be	<i>Past Perf.</i> , I might not have
loving.	loved.
<i>Pres. Perf.</i> , I have not loved.	
<i>Past Perf.</i> , I had not loved.	
<i>Fut. Perf.</i> , I shall not have	
loved.	

*Subjunctive.**Infinitives.*

<i>Pres.</i> , If I do not love.	<i>Pres.</i> , Not to love.
	<i>Perf.</i> , Not to have loved.

PARTICIPLES.

<i>Imp.</i> , Not loving;	<i>Perf.</i> , Not loved;
<i>Comp.</i> , Not having loved.	

260. NEGATIVE INTERROGATIVE FORMS.

Do I not love? Did I not love? Shall I not love? May I not love? Might I not love? &c.

EXERCISES.

MODEL. Has James been studying? *Has been study ing* is a regular or weak, transitive verb, active voice, progressive interrogative form, indicative mode, present perfect tense, third singular, and agrees with *James*, by Rule II.

The time is approaching. Were you listening? Is he not at home? Will your father not come? Might he not have learned? Did you not hear the news? He has not arrived.

SECTION XV THE STRONG OR IRREGULAR VERBS.

261. The Irregular verbs, as commonly given, contain several distinct classes.

1st. The strong verbs which form their past tense by changing the vowel of the present and do not add *d*, *t*, or *ed*. Their participle past regularly ended in *en*, which is now often wanting.

2d. Those which now form their past tense in *ed*, but their participle in *en*. They were formerly pure strong verbs.

3d. Those that have both a strong and weak form.

4th. Those that both change the vowel and add *t* or *d*, as *seek*, *sought*; *bring*, *brought*; *sell*, *sold*.

5th. Some Defective verbs: as, *am*, *was*, *been*.

For convenience in reference they will be given together. Those that add a termination to form the past tense must be parsed as weak; those that do not, as strong.

The true strong verbs will be spaced, as in *abide*.

The third class will be marked *R*; the fourth, *W*; the fifth *D*. Forms not now used are put in *italics*.

Those that are contracts of weak or regular verbs like *sleep*, *slept* for *sleeped*, will be excluded.

262. LIST OF VERBS COMMONLY CALLED IRREGULAR.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Perfect Participle.</i>
Abide.	abode,	abode.
Am, D.	was.	been.
Arise.	arose.	arisen.
Awake,	awoke, R.	awakened.
Bear, <i>to bring forth</i>	bore, <i>bare</i> ,	born.
Bear, <i>to carry</i> ,	bore, <i>bare</i> .	borne.
Beat.	beat.	beaten, beat.
Begin.	began,	begun.
Behold,	beheld,	beheld.
Beseech,	besought, W	besought.
Bid,	bid, bade,	bidden. bid.
Bind,	bound, <i>band</i> ,	bound, <i>bounden</i> , <i>rare</i> .
Bite,	bit, <i>bat</i> ,	bitten, bit.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Perfect Participle.</i>
Bleed,	bled,	bled.
Blow,	blew,	blown.
Break,	broke, <i>brake</i> ,	broken, <i>broke</i> .
Breed,	bred,	bred.
Bring,	brought, W	brought.
Burst,	burst, <i>brast</i> ,	burst, <i>bursten</i> .
Buy,	bought, W	bought, <i>boughten</i> .
Cast,	cast,	cast.
Catch,	caught, W	caught.
Chide,	chid, <i>chode</i> ,	chidden, chid.
Choose,	chose,	chosen.
Cleave, <i>to split</i> ,	cleft, <i>clave</i> ,	cleft, cloven.
Cleave, <i>to adhere</i> ,	cleaved, <i>clave</i> ,	cleaved.
Cling,	clung, <i>clang</i> ,	clung.
Clothed,	clad, R.	clad.
Come,	came,	come.
Cost,	cost,	cost.
Crow,	crew,	<i>crown</i> , crowed.
Cut,	cut,	cut.
Dare, <i>to venture</i> ,	durst, R.	durst.
Dig,	dug, R.	dug.
Do,	did,	done.
Draw,	drew,	drawn.
Drink,	drank,	drunk, <i>drunken</i> .
Drive,	drove, <i>drave</i> ,	driven.
Eat,	ate, eat,	eaten.
Fall,	fell,	fallen.
Feed,	fed,	fed.
Fight.	fought, W	fought.
Find.	found, <i>fand</i> ,	found.
Fling,	flung, <i>flang</i> ,	flung.
Fly,	flew,	flown.
Forget,	forgot,	forgot, forgotten.
Forsake,	forsook,	forsaken.
Freeze,	froze,	frozen.
Get,	got, <i>gat</i> ,	gotten, got.
Give,	gave,	given.
Glide,	<i>glode</i> , R.	<i>glidden</i> .
Go, D.	went,	gone.
Grave,	graved, <i>grove</i> ,	graven.
Grind,	ground, <i>grand</i> ,	ground.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Perfect Participle.</i>
Grow,	grew,	grown.
Hang, <i>hing</i> ,	hung, <i>hang</i> , R.	hung.
Heave,	hove, R.	hoven.
Help,	holp, R.	holpen.
Hew,	hewed,	hewn.
Hide,	hid,	hidden, hid.
Hit,	hit, R.	hit.
Hold,	held,	holden, held.
Hurt,	hurt,	hurt.
Knit,	knit,	knit.
Know,	knew,	known.
Lade,	laded,	laden.
Let,	let,	let.
Lie,	lay,	lain.
Light,	lit, R.	lit.
Load,	loaded,	loaded, <i>laden</i> .
Meet,	met,	met.
Melt,	molt, R.	molten.
Mow,	mowed, <i>mew</i> ,	mown.
Plead,	pled, R.	pled.
Put,	put,	put.
Quit,	quit, R.	quit.
Read,	read, (pron. <i>red</i> .)	read (red.)
Rid,	rid,	rid.
Ride,	rode,	ridden.
Ring,	rang, rung,	rung.
Rise,	rose,	risen.
Rive,	rived,	riven.
Run,	ran,	run.
Saw,	sawed,	sawn.
See,	saw,	seen.
Seek,	sought, W	sought.
Seethe,	sod,	sodden.
Set,	set,	set.
Shake,	shook,	shaken.
Shape,	shaped, <i>shope</i> ,	shapen.
Shave,	shaved,	shaven.
Shear,	sheared, <i>shore</i> ,	shorn.
Shed,	shed,	shed.
Shine,	shone,	shone.
Shoot,	shot,	shot.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Perfect Participle.</i>
Show,	showed, <i>shew</i> .	shown.
Shed.	shed.	shed.
Shrink.	shrank, <i>shrank</i> ,	shrunk.
Shut.	shut.	shut.
Sing.	sung. <i>sang</i> .	sung.
Sink.	sunk. sank,	sunk.
Sit.	sat. sate.	sat. sitten.
Slay.	slew.	slain.
Slide.	slid, <i>slide</i> .	slidden.
Sling.	slung. <i>slung</i> .	slung.
Slink.	slunk,	slunk.
Slit.	slit, <i>slit</i> . R.	slit.
Smite.	smote.	smitten.
Sow.	sowed.	sown.
Speak	spoke. spake.	spoken.
Speed.	sped.	sped.
Spin.	spun. <i>span</i> .	spun.
Spit.	spit. <i>put</i> .	spit.
Spread.	spread.	spread.
Spring	sprung, sprang.	sprung.
Stand.	stood.	stood.
Steal.	stole. <i>stole</i> .	stolen.
Stick.	stuck. <i>stuck</i> .	stuck.
Sting.	stung. <i>stung</i> .	stung.
Stink.	stunk. <i>stunk</i> .	stunk.
Strew.	strewed.	strown.
Stride.	strode.	stridden.
Strike.	struck. <i>strake</i> .	stricken. struck.
String.	strung. <i>strang</i> .	strung.
Strive.	strove.	striven.
Strow.	strowed.	strown.
Swear.	swore. <i>swore</i> .	sworn.
Swell.	swelled. <i>swell</i> .	swollen.
Swim.	swam. swum.	swum.
Swing	swung. <i>swang</i> .	swung.
Take.	took.	taken.
Teach.	taught. W	taught.
Tear	tore. <i>tare</i> .	torn.
Tell.	told. W	told.
Think.	thought. W	thought.
Thrive.	throve,	thriven.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Perfect Participle.</i>
Throw,	threw,	thrown.
Thrust,	thrust,	thrust.
Tread,	trod, <i>trad</i> ,	trodden, trod.
Wax,	waxed,	waxen.
Wear,	wore, <i>ware</i> ,	worn.
Weave,	wove,	woven.
Wed,	wed, R.	wed.
Wet,	wet, R.	wet.
Win,	won, <i>wan</i> ,	won.
Wind,	wound, <i>wand</i> ,	wound.
Work,	wrought, W R.	wrought.
Wrung,	wrung,	wrung.
Write,	wrote, writ,	written.

In this table all such words as *cut, cost*, that do not receive any modification are really weak or regular verbs. They cannot, from the laws which govern our sounds, receive an addition. They are placed here for convenience.

263. The Past tense and Perfect Participle of these verbs must not be used instead of each other.

EXERCISES FOR CORRECTION.

The horses drawed the carriage. The horses were drove. The birds have flew away. The stream has froze over. They have wrote to-day. The meeting has began. She has sang a song. The sun has rose. They done their work. My watch was stole. The ball was throwed away. The apples have fell. The letter was writ. The letter was wrote badly. We rid a mile. I have not saw him.

SECTION XVI. CLASSES OF WEAK OR REGULAR VERBS.

264. All verbs that in present use form their past tense by adding *d, t*, or *ed* are weak verbs.

1. They include those also that from their endings cannot receive such an addition; as, *cost*, *cost*.

2. At present the past tense and past participle have generally the same form.

3. There are *three* classes of these verbs.

I. First, those that add *d*, *t*, or *ed* without a change; as, *learn*, *learned*, *love*, *loved*, *toss*, *tossed* (pron. *tost*.) *Ed* is now added in sound to verbs ending in *d* or *t* only.

In solemn discourse *ed* is heard as a separate syllable in words like *loved*, &c. The habit of the language is to say *lov'd*, *dream't* for *dreamed*.

II. Second, those that form their past tense by adding *d* or *t* and shortening the vowel of the present; as *flee*, *fled*; *keep*, *kept*.

EXAMPLES.

Feel, felt.	Lose, lost.	Bereave, bereft.
Deal, dealt.	Shoe, shod.	Cleave, cleft.
Kneel, knelt.	Dream, dreamt.	Leave, left.
Creep, crept.	Lean, leant.	
Weep, wept.	Mean, meant.	

(a) When the word ends in *d* or *t*, a second *d* or *t* cannot be added. Then the past tense is formed by shortening the vowel; as, *meet*, *met*; *hide*, *hid*; *light*, *lit*; *shoot*, *shot*; *bleed*, *bled*; *breed*, *bred*; *feed*, *fed*; *lead*, *led*; *read*, *read* (pron. *red*;) *speed*, *sped*.

(b) Some verbs end in *d* and have a short vowel. These change *d* to *t*; as, *bend*, *bent*; *blend*, *blent*; *rend*, *rent*; *wend*, *went*; *build*, *built*; *gild*, *gilt*; *gird*, *girt*.

Except,—*shed*, *shed*; *shred*, *shred*; *bid*, *bid*; *spread*, *spread*; *rid*, *rid*.

(c) Some end in *t* and have a short vowel. Their past is the same as the present; as, cast, *cast*; cost, *cost*; cut, *cut*; hit, *hit*; knit, *knit*; put, *put*; set, *set*, &c.

III. Third, those that add *d* or *t* and change the vowel.

The sounds of *k*, *g*, *gh*, *ch*, *ng*, and *y* for Saxon *g*, are interchangeable.

Examples,—beseech, *besought*; bring, *brought*; buy, *bought*; catch, *caught*; seek, *sought*; teach, *taught*; think, *thought*; work, *wrought*; owe, *ought*.

4. *Made* is contracted for *maked* (Sax. *macode*); *had* for *haved*.

5. Verbs like seek, *sough-t*; bring, *brough-t*, show both processes at work in the same word; those like grave, *graved*, *graven*, show a change from strong to weak in the past tense.

265. There are many verbs that are now weak that were in Saxon strong; as,

English.	Saxon.	English.	Saxon.
Mete, meted.	Mete, maete.	Wade, waded.	Wade, wod.
Dread, dreaded.	Draede, dred.	Grave, graved.	Græf, grof.
Sleep, slept.	Slape, slep.	Creep, crept.	Creope, creap.
Bake, baked.	Bace, bok.	Dive, dived.	Deofe, deaf.

Many strong verbs have become weak, but no weak verbs ever become strong. All the strong verbs are of Saxon origin.

SECTION XVII. DEFECTIVE AND UNIPERSONAL VERBS.

266. A few verbs are Defective or wanting in some of their parts, which are partly supplied

by other words; as, *am*, *was*, *been*, from the verbs *am*, *was*, and *be*; *go*, *went*, *gone* from *go* and *wend*.

267. The other defective verbs are entirely wanting in some of their parts. They are:—

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past</i>	<i>Perf. Past.</i>	<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Perf. Past.</i>
Can,	could,	_____.	Quoth,	quoth,	_____.
Will,	would,	_____.	Wit,	wot.	_____.
Shall,	should,	_____.	Beware.	_____.	_____.
May,	might,	_____.	Hark, in the imperative only.		
Must,	must,	_____.			

Do in “this will do,” “this will answer the purpose,” is a different verb from *do* to act.

268. A few verbs are found only in the third person singular.

They are called unipersonal, that is, having but one person; as, *it rains*, *it hails*, *it snows*.

269. *Methinks*, *methought* are unipersonal compounds of the Dative case, *me* and the verb *think* which means *seems* or *appears*. *Methinks* means, it seems or appears to me. This verb *think* is not of the same origin as the verb *think*, to consider. The first is from *thin can*, the second from *then can*.

EXERCISES.

Did you see the rainbow after the shower? Victory perched upon our banners. It is raining on the hills. How hard it rains! Thou canst not do it. Incline my heart unto thy testimonies. Bind them upon thy fingers, write them upon the table of thy heart. Methinks I hear him coming. It thundered heavily. It seemed as if the fountains of the great deep were broken up.

CHAPTER XVII.

ADVERBS.

270. I say, "He runs swiftly" "She speaks correctly

Swiftly and *correctly* tell *how* the action is performed and modify the verbs.

1. They also modify adjectives and other adverbs; as, *very* careful, *very* slowly.

2. They are called adverbs, which means joined to a verb.

271. Adverbs are words joined to verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs to modify them.

They cannot form the essential parts of propositions, but serve only to modify them.

272. Adverbs are divided into two classes, analogous to descriptive and definitive adjectives; adverbs of manner, and circumstantial adverbs.

273. Those of the first class are derived from adjectives and nouns. They are notional words.

They modify the predicate absolutely without reference to the subject; as, "The child sleeps *soundly*." The tree grows *slowly*. He rides *homeward*.

274. Those of the second class do not modify the predicate directly, but the whole assertion; as, "He lives *here*." "He speaks *thus*." "He studies *now*."

They are nearly all of pronominal origin or imply a definitive adjective in their meaning; as, *here* equals in this place; *thus*, in this manner. They are relational words.

275. In respect to use, adverbs may be divided into three classes, modifiers of verbs; modifiers of adjectives; modifiers both of verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs.

1. The larger part modify verbs. Those that modify adjectives are those that express intensity or degree. Some are found after both verbs and adjectives, but with a different meaning in each case; as, "He thinks *as* I think," *as* denotes manner. "He was *as* wise *as* learned," *as* denotes degree.

2. Those that modify adverbs are the same as those that modify adjectives. They modify the adjective contained in the adverb; as, "He acted *wisely*." "He acted in a *wise* manner."

DERIVATION OF ADVERBS.

276. A few are primitive words, that is, not derived from any other part of speech, *so far as we can trace them*; as, *now, soon, far, oft*.

277. The remainder are derived variously; as,

1st. From nouns *Home*. "to the house," an objective case used adverbially; as, "He goes home." *Needs*, "of necessity," a possessive case; as, "He must needs go." *Always, noways, from all-ways, no-ways*, old possessives. *Nightly, away, a-way* from *night* and *way*. *Whilom* a dative case of *while, time*. *Indeed*, in truth. *To-day* and *to-night* are very old adverbial compounds.

2d. From adjectives *Unawares, once, twice, thrice, else*, are possessive cases of adjectives. *Seldom*, a dative from *seld*.

A large number are formed by adding *ly*; while some adjectives are used as adverbs without change of form; as "Favors come *thick* upon him." "Slow tolls the village clock" "Open thy hand *wide*."

Combinations like *in vain, in public, in general, in secret*, are called adverbial phrases.

3d. From pronouns. *Here, there, where, hither, thither, whither, hence, thence, whence, then, when, so, as, how*, and the compounds *herein, hereof, &c.*

4th. *Prepositions* used as adverbs ; as *of, on, up, out, by, for, in, with, to*, and their compounds.

COMPARISON OF ADVERBS.

278. Some adverbs, especially those of manner, are compared. They are compared like adjectives.

1. Those ending in *ly* are compared by *more* and *most*, *less* and *least* ; as, *wisely, more wisely, most wisely* ; *kindly, less kindly, least kindly*.

2. Others are compared by adding *er* and *est* ; as, *soon, sooner, soonest* ; *often, oftener, oftenest*.

3. A few are irregular ; as, *little, less, least* ; *much, more, most* ; *badly* or *ill, worse, worst* ; *well, better, best* ; *far, farther, farthest* ; *forth, further, furthest*.

279. CLASSIFICATION OF ADVERBS.

1. *Adverbs of manner* These mostly end in *ly*, which is from Saxon *lice*, English *like*, as *manly, lovely, kindly, &c.* Others are *so, thus, however, somehow, else, like, well, ill, fain, lief*.

2. *Adverbs of place.* (1) In a place ; *here, there, where, yonder* and their compounds ; (2) To a place ; *hither, thither, whither* and compounds ; (3) From a place ; *hence, thence, whence, &c.* (4) Toward a place ; *hitherward, forward, backward, &c.*

3. *Adverbs of time.* (1) Present ; *now, yet, to-day, presently, &c.* (2) Future ; *henceforth, hereafter, by and by, soon, ere long.* (3) Past ; *yesterday, already, lately, heretofore, since, ago, hitherto, &c.* (4) Time relative ; *when, then, while, whilst, before, after, till, until, betimes, early, late.* (5) Time abso-

lute; *ever, aye, always, never.* (6) Time repeated; *often, oft, sometimes, seldom, rarely.*

4. Adverbs of order *First, secondly, thirdly, lastly, finally.*

5. Adverbs of number *Once, twice, thrice, four times.*

6. Adverbs of Degree. *More, most, less, least, well, better, as, so, very, rather, fully, chiefly, almost, nearly, quite.*

7 Adverbs of doubt. *Perhaps, peradventure, possibly, perchance.*

8. Adverbs of interrogation. *How, why, when, whence, where, &c.*

9. Adverbs of affirmation. *Yea, yes, truly, verily, indeed, &c.*

10. Adverbs of negation *Nay, no, not, nowise.*

Some fall into various classes according to their meaning in different sentences,

280. Some adverbs are used independently, or, rather, they embrace in themselves a whole proposition; as *aye, yea, no, amen.* As, "Are you going?" *Yes.* That is, "I am going."

281. *There* at the beginning of sentences does not modify any word, and is a mere expletive. It serves to throw the subject after the verb; as, "There is no doubt of the fact." "There was a man."

CONJUNCTIVE ADVERBS.

282. Some adverbs not only modify but also connect sentences; as, "I saw him when he came." *When* connects "I saw him" and "He came" and modifies *came.* "When he came" modifies *saw.*

283. The conjunctive adverbs are: *after, before, ere, even, since, how, till, until, when, where, while, whilst, whenever, no sooner, as soon as, as far as, &c.*

284. Phrases like "as far as" should be analyzed. "He writes as well as his brother." *As well as* connects the two sentences. The first *as* modifies *well*; *as well* modifies *writes*: the second *as* modifies *writes* understood and is equal to *as well*. *As well as* is equivalent to *that well which*. The first *as* is demonstrative, the second relative.

EXERCISES.

MODEL. He sleeps soundly. *Soundly* is an adverb of manner and modifies *sleeps*, by Rule XVI.

The storm rages violently. The hour will soon arrive. The news came to-day. Roots grow downward. He lived almost in vain. Where is my friend? He gives twice who gives cheerfully. When the rain ceases, I shall return. As soon as you reach home, write to me.

CHAPTER XVIII.

PREPOSITIONS.

285. The Preposition is a word that shows the relation between its object and some other word in the same sentence; as, "He comes *with* me." *With* shows the relation between *me* and *comes*. Or, the Preposition is a word that does not form a part of the proposition, but which alone or in connection with nouns and pronouns modifies the members of the proposition.

The preposition with its object is termed an adjunct

286. They perform three separate offices.

1. First, they are used in forming compound words; as, *down-fall, out-cry, off-spring, over-flow, under-stand, &c.*

2. Second, they are used as modifiers of verbs; as, "He rides *about*." "To cast *up* accounts." "I keep *under* my body."

3. Third, together with a noun or pronoun they serve as modifiers of verbs, nouns and adjectives; as, "He came *with me*." "The reward *of virtue*." "Fond *of play*."

287. The older primitive prepositions express the direction of the motion or activity of the modified word; as, "He goes *up*" expresses the direction of the motion, "He goes *up the hill*," limits it more definitely. Their later meanings are derived from these.

Their primary force seems to be that of adverbs; as "He went *up*." This expression may now be modified by various objects; as, He went *up the hill, up the road, up the street, &c.*

288. Prepositions are of two classes, simple and compound or derived prepositions.

289. The simple prepositions are:—*At, by, down, ere, for, from, in, of, on, over, round, since, till, to, through, under, up, with.* Also, *after*, the comparative of *aft*.

290. Compound Prepositions *First*, compounds with *a*. *A* in *a-board* is a preposition meaning *on* or *in*.

Examples: *A-board, a-bove, about, across, against, along, amid, amidst, among, amongst, around, athwart, Aboard* is equal to *on board*; *amid, on* or *in mid, &c.*

Second, compounds with *be* ; as, *Before*, *behind*, *below*, *beneath*, *beside*, *besides*, *between*, *betwixt*, *beyond*.

Be means *by* ; as, *beside* means *by the side of*.

Third, compounds of prepositions with prepositions or adverbs. *In-to*, *out-of*, *through-out*, *to-ward*, *towards*, *upon*, *until*, *unto*, *underneath*, *within*, *without*.

Prepositional phrases, *according to*, *in respect of*, &c. *Notwithstanding* is compounded of *not*, *with*, and participle *standing*.

291. *Bating*, *bearing*, *concurring*, *during*, *excepting*, *regarding*, *respecting*, *touching*, &c., sometimes treated as prepositions are properly participles. *Save* and *except* are properly imperatives. *Near*, *nigh*, *like* and *unlike* are adjectives followed by the objective or more properly the dative.

292. Most prepositions arrange themselves in pairs, as *in* and *out* ; *to* and *from* ; *before* and *behind* ; *up* and *down* ; *above* and *below* ; *into* and *out of*.

293. Prepositions in all languages require the noun following them to be in an oblique case.

In English they are followed by the objective.

294. This is because case endings and prepositions express the same idea, direction ; and hence, when the case endings are forgotten or lost, the prepositions take their place. This explains the use of prepositions as modifiers of verbs without objects following.

295. The usual definition of prepositions, that they show the relation between their objects and other words, is imperfect since that is not their primary use, and does not explain their use in the first and second cases.

EXERCISES.

MODEL. He came with me. *With* is a preposition, it shows the relation between *me* and *came*, by Rule XVII.

Me is a personal pronoun, substantive kind; first singular, objective case after *with*, by Rule XVIII.

The clouds lay upon the tops of the mountains. I heard the crash of the pointed rocks through the bottom of the ship. He was fond of study. The city of Rome was founded according to story by Romulus. James was going up the hill as the sun went down. The moon rose behind the hills and tipped the trees with her silvery light. I go up and you go down.

CHAPTER XIX.

CONJUNCTIONS.

296. A **C o n j u n c t i o n** is a word used to connect sentences and parts of sentences, but which forms no part of any proposition.

297 The **c o n n e c t i v e s** may be divided into *conjunctions* proper, whose sole use is to connect, and *conjunctives*, which connect and at the same time express some other relation. They are, the *conjunctive adverbs*, *conjunctive* or *relative pronouns*, and *phrases* used as connectives.

298. The **c o n j u n c t i o n s** are:—*And, although, as, or, nor, yet, but, either, neither, than, that, because, since, though, although, except, whether, lest, unless.*

299. The **c o n j u n c t i v e a d v e r b s** are:—*After, before, ere, even, since, how, till, until, where, while, whilst, whenever, no sooner, as soon as, as far as, &c., the more—the better; the more—the less, &c.*

300. The **c o n j u n c t i v e p r o n o u n s** are *who, which, what, that*, and *as* after many, such, and same.

301. *Conjunctive phrases are, as far as, as much as, &c., and that too, for else, for otherwise, but yet, but that, &c.*

CLASSES OF CONJUNCTIONS AND OTHER CONNECTIVES.

302. Conjunctive words are used to connect sentences.

303. The sentences thus united are simply connected, and are independent of each other; or one constitutes part of the other.

1. The first method is called *co-ordination*, and the conjunctives employed are *co-ordinates*.

2. The second is called *subordination* and the conjunctives employed are *subordinates*.

304. Co-ordinate conjunctives are divided into *copulative*, *adversative*, and *causal* conjunctives.

I. *Copulative* conjunctives unite sentences and enlarge the thought by external additions; as, "Johns reads and writes," that is "John reads and John writes."

1. They are, first, *and* which is the simple copulative.

2. Those that consist of two parts, correlative and relative; as, *both, and, as well—as, not only—but also*. The first calls the attention of the mind to that which is to follow in connection with the second; as "He is *both* poor *and* wretched." "He is *not only* rich, *but* he is *also* generous."

3. The principal conjunction often has another united with it; as, *and besides, and likewise, and moreover*.

4. Frequently the principal conjunction is not expressed and these words take its place; as, "You have done wrong, *besides* you promised to do better." "The poor man is sick, his children are *likewise* ill."

5. Copulatives with an intensive sense; *also, but also*.

6. Ordinate conjunctives; *first, secondly, thirdly, again, then, finally, lastly*. These connect the different sentences, paragraphs, or divisions of a discourse.

II. **A d v e r s a t i v e** conjunctives connect sentences where the last member expresses some contradiction or exception to what is asserted in the first; as, "He came but he went away."

1. They are, first, *but* which is the simple adversative.

2. *Correlatives* expressing antithesis or opposition; *not—but, on the one hand—on the other, on the contrary; now—then*; as, "He is *not* wise, *but* he is foolish." It is *not* day, *but* it is night."

3. Those that restrict the meaning of the preceding proposition; as, *but, yet, nevertheless, notwithstanding, however, still, only*. "The ostrich is a bird, *but* it cannot fly." "He is rich *but* he is not liberal."

4. *Disjunctives*; *or, either—or, whether—or, else, neither—nor*.

5. These may be called alternatives. "John or James will come." means one or the other will come. When the alternation is more emphatic, *either—or* is used. In poetry *or—or* is frequently employed.

Neither—nor expresses negatively what is expressed by *either—or* affirmatively.

III. **C a u s a l** conjunctives express a reason, effect, or consequence. They are *for, therefore, wherefore, thereupon, hereupon, hence, accordingly, consequently, and so, of course, whereas, since, inasmuch as*.

305. SUBORDINATE CONJUNCTIVES.

1. First, those which merely introduce the subordinate proposition; *that, whether, and if*, in sentences like these. "I knew *that* he had come." "I do not know *whether* he has come." "I asked *if* he was dead."

2. Relatives, or conjunctive pronouns, *who, which, that, what*.

3. Conjunctive adverbs of place; as, *where, whither, whence, wherever*.

4. Conjunctive adverbs of time: *when, while, &c.*
5. Conjunctives expressing manner; *as, as if, so that.*

6. Subordinate causal conjunctions.

(1) Those that express the actual cause; *because, since, whereas.* "The stars seem small, *because* they are distant."

(2) The possible cause or condition: *if, provided that, providing that, in case that, provided, unless, except.* "I will go *if* it does not rain." "I will not let thee go *except* thou bless me."

(3) Adversative cause or concession: *Though, although.* "*Though* the Lord be high *yet* hath he respect unto the lowly."

(4) The final cause or the purpose: *that, lest.* "He studies *that* he may learn."

7. Conjunctives that denote intensity, comparison, effect; *than, the, so, that, &c.* "He is *as* rich *as* his brother." "He is wiser *than* his master." "*The* more, *the* better." "He speaks *so* loud *that* he may be heard in the street."

Conjunctive words are found in several of these classes according as their shades of meaning differ.

This division of conjunctive words, is more complicated than that usually given, but it is the only way by which their use and force in the sentence can be adequately shown.

EXERCISES.

MODEL. *And* is a conjunction, it connects "The sun shines," and "The air is mild," by Rule XIX.

Point out the different classes of connectives.

The sun shines and the air is mild. Wise men die, likewise the fool and the brutish person perish. He was there as well as the others. He not only threatened him but also struck him. The duty of the historian is twofold; first, towards himself, then, towards his reader. Vice stings us

even in our pleasures, but virtue consoles us even in our pains. Straws swim upon the surface but pearls lie at the bottom. He is rich yet he is not liberal. It is my brother or my sister. I have none; else I would give it. I neither knew where I was, what I was, nor from whence I came. Praise the Lord for he is good. Man is a creature therefore he is mortal. Where thou lodgest I will lodge. When you have nothing to say, say nothing. As we were walking we met a stranger. He looks as if he was sick. As the hart panteth after the water brooks so panteth my soul after thee.

CHAPTER XX.

INTERJECTIONS.

306. Interjections are exclamatory words thrown between propositions to express emotions or to call attention.

They are not members nor modifiers of propositions and do not connect them.

307 They are of two kinds, those expressing purely natural feeling, cries of pain, anger, sorrow, or imitations of natural sounds, and those which are words used in a peculiar sense, as hark! behold! &c.

The oldest interjections are involuntary natural sounds; as, *O! Oh! Ah! Pish! Heigh ho! Ha ha!*

308. Others are imitations of natural sounds.

(1) Those addressed to animals; as to sheep, *knan knan*; to poultry *shoo*; to cows *koh koh*,

(2) Imitations of animals; as, *moo, bow wow, peep peep, quack.*

(3) Imitations of objects as, *ding dong, tick tack, rat a tat.* .

309. The second class of interjections are abrupt imperative propositions; as, *behold, lo, hark, see, help, silence, peace, courage*; and other words used abruptly by ellipsis; as, *horrid! murder! fire! water! &c.*

EXERCISES.

Ah! woe is me. Hark! some one comes. Indeed! has he started. What ho! Stranger, whence come you? See! it rends the rocks asunder! Alas! he cried, the fault is mine. Hush! he is at the door. What! are you mad?

 CHAPTER XXI.

DERIVATION.

310. *Derivation* is an essential part of Etymology. It is the tracing of words to their origin, and the explanation of the changes they undergo.

The historical origin of our language has been shown in the introduction.

311. All words are derived from forms which are called *roots*. For example, *bind, bound, band, bundle*, all have a common element *b-nd* which is the root.

In the Indo-European languages—to which class ours belongs—there are two classes of roots.

312. From the first, and by far the largest class, spring *verbs*, and *nouns* that stand in a brotherly relation to the verbs, not derived from them, but springing from the same source with them. They are called for distinction *verbal roots*.

313. From the second class, spring the *Pronouns*, and all primitive *prepositions*, *conjunctions*, and *particles*.

From them are also derived the personal endings of verbs, and the case endings of nouns.

314. We call them *pronominal roots* because they all express a pronominal relation, which in the conjunctions, prepositions, and particles lies somewhat concealed.

315. *Pronominal roots* belong to the class of instinctive natural elements, and are among the oldest forms in language.

316. Verbal roots express ideas of *substance*, *activity*, *being*, and their attributes; while pronominal roots express *relations*, *direction*, *place*.

317 Nouns, adjectives and verbs, consist of verbal roots combined with pronominal roots expressing their relations.

Verbal roots are the bony framework of language; *pronominal roots*, the sinews which clothe them, and make them living, speaking forms.

318. In most languages this fact is not at once apparent, since in the wear of words they have been deprived of their forms. They are like coins which still preserve their value, though their inscriptions have long since disappeared.

318. Our language consists of the following elements.

- I. Pronominal roots, including all instinctive forms.
- II. Verbal roots, including stem nouns, stem verbs, and stem adjectives.
- III. Reduplicate forms, like *chit*, *chat*, *dīng*, *dong*.

IV Primary derivatives, *chatter, whitèn, wisely, freedom.*

V Secondary derivatives, *fearfully, tiredness.*

VI. Words with prefixes, *arise, forbid.*

VII. Compounds, as *horse-man, rats-bane, sweet-heart.*

VIII. Disguised derivatives and compounds, as *daisy (day's eye).*

I. PRONOMINAL ELEMENTS.

319. These include the instinctive or natural elements, like *O! ah! oh! &c.*

1. The element of the first singular subject is *I* from Saxon *Ic*.

2. That of the first singular object is *m* in *me, my, mine.*

3. *W*, for Saxon *u*, the element of the first plural, is found in *we, our, (ure,) ours, us.*

4. *Th*, the element of the second singular is found in *thou, thy, thine, thee.*

5. *Y*, the plural element of the second singular is found in *ye, you, your, yours.*

6. *H*, the element of the third person, and nearer demonstrative, is found in *he, his, him, her, hers, it (for hit) its, hence, here, hither, &c.*

7. *Th*, the remote demonstrative is found in *that, those, this, these, the, thence, there, thiher, then, than, thus, they, their, them.* Perhaps allied with the 2d personal element. *This* and *these* are now nearer demonstratives.

8. *S*, another form of this appears in *she, so, some, also, as, such.*

9. *Wh*, the interrogative element, appears in *who, which, wha', where, when, whence, whither, whether, whose, whom, why, how.*

II. VERBAL ROOTS.

320. We cannot in our limits classify the verbal roots.

They are the products of the thinking mind, and, however far back we may trace them, they still

bear its impress. Indeed, most words have lost more or less of their primary meaning.

321. Our primitive verbal words all have reference to the external world, to ideas of motion and substance.

322. But as languages grow old, they need words to express objects of reflection, memory, and abstract conception. Instead of coining new words or roots, the old are used in a new and abstract sense. Thus *spirit* means *breath* or *wind*; conscience, is *a knowing together*; in Saxon *inwit*, *inner-knowledge*; emotion is *a moving*; reflection, *a turning back*; rectitude, righteousness, *a straightness*; language, *a tongue*; poetry, *a creating, &c.*

323. Thus the word, which was first the picture of an object, or an action, becomes the picture, so to speak, of a thought.

324. As an illustration of the origin of words take the names of animals which may be traced to some active quality that they possess.

Man is connected with a root which means to think, and to remember; *sloth* means the slow one; the *hare*, the leaper; the *wolf*, the one who tears in pieces; the *dog*, the swift; *crab*, the creeper; *cow*, the slow marcher; *ox*, the producer; *mouse*, the thief.

325. The primary verbal roots in English are about 1000 in number.

326. In order to distinguish them we must be able to separate them from the *prefixes*, and *suffixes* which envelop them. For instance *i* is the root in *trans-i-torines*; *dic* in *dedicate*.

327. When roots receive additions, they are often modified to preserve the balance of phonetic weight; as in Latin *inimicus* is compounded of *in* and *am'cus*, when *a* becomes *i* to lighten the weight of the syllables.

328. On the other hand syllables are sometimes strengthened to preserve them from loss; as in the root *frag*, in *fragile*, *frangible*, *fracture*, *infringe*.

329. Many of the forms of words arise from these efforts at compensation, and have been produced so long ago, that the means has been lost sight of; as, *man*, *mén*, *sing*, *sang*, and the strong forms generally.

III. REDUPLICATE FORMS.

330. The most simple change to which words are subject, is reduplication, as in *sing song*, *chit chat*, *ding dong*, *see saw*, *slip slop*, *click clack*, *handy dandy*, *hurry skurry*, *hurly burly*. These are not compounds, but natural formations. They are found in many languages..

IV PRIMARY DERIVATIVES.

331. The next step in derivation is to place a syllable after the root. This syllable is called a *suffix*.

LIST OF THE PRINCIPAL SUFFIXES.

1. S, es, *more than one*; boys, *more than one boy*: also *does*; walks, *does walk*.
2. Er, *more*; brighter, *more bright*.
3. Est, *most*; brightest, *most bright*: *dost*; *walkest*, *dost walk*.
4. Ed, *did*; *walked*, *did walk*: *possessed of*; *winged*, *stringed*, &c.
5. Ing, *continuing to*; *walking*, *continuing to walk*.
6. Ate, en, ize, *to make*, *to do*; *harden*, *to make hard*; *actuate*, *to make or cause to act*; *civilize*, *to make civil*.
7. Ar, er, or, an, ian, yer, eer, ees, *one who*; *beggar*, *one who begs*; *executor*, *one who executes*; *sawyer*, *one who saws*, &c.
8. Ess, ine, ix, *a female*; *lioness*, *a female lion*.
9. Ness, ty, ity, dom, hood, ship, state, condition, power, &c.; *hardness*, *state of being hard*; *kingdom*, *power*, or *country of a king*.
10. Ion, ment, *the act of*; *agitation*, *the act of agitating*.
11. Al, ic, an, ian, ar, ary *pertaining to*; *heroic* *pertaining to a hero*.

12. Ous, ful, y, *full of*; perilous, *full of* peril; hopeful, *full of* hope.

13. Able, ible, *that may be*; eatable, *that may be* eaten.

14. Ly, *in a manner*; kindly, *in a kind manner*.

15. Less, *without*; penniless, *without a penny*.

16. Ish, some, *somewhat*; sweetish, *somewhat* sweet.

17. Y, ry, ery, *the art or practice of*; coquetry, *the art of a coquette*.

18. Ward, *towards*; northward, *towards the north*.

19. Ive, ory, *tending to*; instructive, *tending to instruct*.

20. Let, et, ule, cule, *a little*; brooklet, *a little brook*.

There are many others which we have not room to give

Analyze these derivatives and give the meanings of the suffixes.

Horses. Strikes. Sweeter. Player. Highest. Singest. Readest. Walked. Winged. Plumed. Writing. Whiten. Soften. Graduate. Christianize. Passer. Sailor. Baroness. Heroine. Sweetness. Oddity. Hardship. Knighthood. Action. Statement. Baronial. Dangerous. Destructible. Manly. Blackish. Houseless. Globule. Formal. Talkative. Darksome.

V SECONDARY DERIVATIVES.

332. Secondary derivatives are those formed from other derivatives; as *tire-some-ness*, *man-ful-ly*.

VI. DERIVATIVES WITH PREFIXES.

333. A *prefix* is a syllable placed before a word; as *be-hind*, *a-rise*, *con-duct*.

LIST OF THE PRINCIPAL PREFIXES.

I. ENGLISH OR SAXON.

1. A, *on*, *in*, *to*, *at*, *ashore*, *on shore*; *afoot*, *on foot*.

2. Be, *upon*, *over*, *by*, *near*, &c.; *bedew*, *besprinkle*, *beside*, *behind*, &c.

3. For, *from* or *against*; *forbid*, *forbear*.
4. Fore, *before*; *foresee*, *foretell*.
5. Mis, *wrong*; *misconduct*, *misrule*.
6. Out, *beyond*, *more*; *outrun*, *outlive*, *outside*.
7. Over, *above*, *beyond*; *overdo*, *overcome*, *overtop*.
8. Un, *not*; *uncertain*, *unbind*; *privation* or *removal*; *unmask*.
9. Under, *beneath*, *inferior*; *underlay*, *undermine*.
10. Up, *elevation*, *on high*; *uplift*.
11. With, *against*, *from*; *withstand*, *withhold*.

II. LATIN.

1. A, ab, or abs, *from*; *avert*, to turn from, *abstract*, to draw from.
2. Ad, a, ac, af, ag, al, an, ap, ar, as, or at, *at* or *to*; *adhere*, to cling to; *affix*, to fix to. Other examples—*accede*, *aggrandize*, *allot*, *annex*, *appeal*, &c.
3. Ante, *before*; *antecedent*, going before.
4. Circum, *around*; *circumnavigate*, to sail around.
5. Con, *with* or *together*; in composition, co, cog, col, com, cor. Examples: *composition*, placing together; *correlative*, relating together.
6. Contra, counter, *against*; *contradict*, to speak against.
7. De, down, *from*; *deduce*, draw from; *debase*, to bring down.
8. Dis, di, dif, *apart*, *not*, to *deprive of*; *disunion*, separation.
9. E or ex, *out of*, *from*; *eject*, to cast out; *evade*, to escape from.
10. Extra, *beyond*, *more than*; *extraordinary*, more than ordinary.
11. In, im, il, ig, ir, before adjectives *not*; *inactive*, not active; before verbs *in. into*, to *make*; *insert* to place in; *imbrown* to make brown.
12. Inter, *between*, *among*; *intervene*, to come among.
13. Ob, oc, of, op, *before*, *against*, *in the way*; *occlude*, closed against.
14. Per, *through*; *pervade*, go through; *by*, *perchance*, by chance.
15. Pre, *before*; *precede*, go before; *prejudge*, judge before.
16. Pro, *for*, *forth*, *forward*; *pronoun* for a noun; *provoke*, call forth.

17. Re, *again, back*; recall, call back; *reenter*, enter again.

18. Sub, *sub*, suf, *sug*, sup, *sub*, *under, from*; *subscribe*, write under.

19. Super, *above, over*; *superscribe*, write over.

20. Trans, *across, over, beyond*; *transfer*, carry over.

III. GREEK.

1. A, *an*, *without*; *atheist*, without a God; *anarchy*, without government.

2. Anti, *against*; *antipathy*, feeling against.

3. Apo, *ap*, *from*; *aphelion*, from the sun.

4. Dia, *through*; *diameter*, measure through.

5. Hemi, and Semi, *half*; *hemisphere*, half a sphere.

6. Hyper, *over*; *hypercritical*, over critical.

7. Mono, *alone, single*; *monosyllable*, one syllable.

8. Poly, *many*; *polysyllable*, a word of many syllables.

9. Peri, *around*; *perimeter*, measure around.

10. Syn, *sy*, *syl*, *sym*, *together with*; *sympathy*, feeling with.

EXERCISES FOR ANALYSIS.

Abed. Ashore. Behind. Forbid. Foreknow.
 Misguide. Outshoot. Overleap. Unkind. Unhinge.
 Undertake. Upraise. Withhold. Abscond. Ad-
 judge. Antedate. Circumscribe. Conjugate.
 Compact. Counteract. Design. Dismiss. Divide.
 Expunge. Enact. Immature. Interdict. Obtrude.
 Permit. Prewarn. Provide. Return. Submit. Su-
 pervene. Transmarine. Antimason. Anteroom.
 Diagram. Semicircle.

VII. COMPOUND WORDS.

334. Compound words consist of two words, expressing of themselves distinct ideas, united together so as to express but one.

335. Derivation gives us different forms of ideas; as from write we have *writes*, *writer*, *writing*, *written*; while composition gives us varieties of the same ideas; as *steamboat*, *horseboat*, *sailboat*.

336. Composition distinguishes the single thing from the class as *key* marks all keys, but *doorkey*, *housekey*, *watchkey*, mark the varieties of keys.

337. Composition is distinguished from syntactical modification of words by the change of accent. Compare "a red house" where there is an accent both upon *red* and *house*, and "a mad house" where the accent is upon *mad*. The two words, in compounds, become one in respect to accent.

338. This is one of the principal tests of composition. Latham lays down the principle as of almost universal application, that there is no composition without a change of form, or a change of accent.

339. Compounds consist of two parts, one of which may itself sometimes be compound; as, *midship-man*.

1. The first is the most important term and receives the accent. It limits the second and gives the ruling idea to the word. For example:—*steamboat*, *horseboat*, *hunter*, *ploughman*, *bakehouse*, *brewhouse*, *seaman*, *landman*.

2. In a few cases like *God-man*, *deaf-mute*, where the accent is heard on both words, the inflection shows that they are compound; as, *Godman's*, *deafmute's*.

340. A few compounds are disguised, as *atonement*, for *at one ment*; *daisy*, from Saxon *daeges cage*, *day's eye*; *not*, from *ne-aught*.

PART FOURTH.

SYNTAX.

CHAPTER XXII.

SECTION I. PROPOSITIONS.

342. Syntax treats of the arrangement and construction of words in propositions and sentences.

341. Language consists of propositions, singular or united, and modified in various ways.

343. Propositions may be declarative, interrogative, imperative, and exclamatory.

344. A perfect proposition consists of two parts, *subject* and *predicate*.

345. The subject and predicate may be *simple* or *compound*, *grammatical* or *logical*.

346. The simple subject or predicate consists of but one word or clause; as, *John runs*; *To lie is base*.

347 The compound subject or predicate consists of two or more simple subjects or predicates united; as, "*John and James have come.*" "*Mary sings and plays.*"

348. The grammatical subject or predicate is the same as the simple; as, *John runs*.

349. The logical subject or predicate is the grammatical, with its various modifiers; as "The loud winds roar through the forests." *The loud winds* is the logical subject; *roar through the forests* is the logical predicate.

EXERCISES.

Point out the classes of propositions and the forms of the subject and predicate.

• God is the maker of all things. How beautiful are the starry heavens! What power spread them like a curtain over us? The earth, the air, the water, all things, answer God. Though the world oppose me I shall not falter. If it rains I shall not go.

SECTION II. SENTENCES, CLASSES, AND PHRASES.

• 350. A sentence consist of one or more propositions..

1. A simple sentence contains but one proposition.

2. A compound sentence contains two or more.

3. The propositions contained in it are called *members*.

351. The Clause is a proposition, or a collection of words. introducing some new fact, and which is dependent upon some other word in the sentence; as, "The tree, which you planted, was a maple," *Which you planted* is a clause dependent upon and modifying *tree*.

352. A Phrase is a short expression which taken word by word has no connection with the

rest of the sentence, but which taken together expresses a single idea ; as, *in vain*, equal to *vainly*, *in short*, *in fine*, *to be sure*, &c.

353. Clauses may form parts of propositions or may be used as modifiers of those parts.

354. They may be divided into *substantive*, *adjective*, *relative*, *adverbial*, and *conditional* clauses.

1. A Substantive clause is one that performs the office of a noun in the nominative or objective case; as, "I do not know whether he came." "Whether he came" is the object of know,

2. A Relative clause is one introduced by a relative pronoun.

3. An Adjective clause is one introduced by an adjective or participle; "James, *eager to learn*, applied himself to study." "*Tempted by pleasure*, he forgot the lessons of his youth."

4. An Adverbial clause is one that performs the office of an adverb; as, "*Where thou lodgest*, I will lodge."

5. A Conditional clause is one that expresses a condition; as, "*If he comes to morrow*, I will return."

6. There is also the Absolute clause which forms no part of the proposition. It consists of a noun or pronoun joined with a participle; as, "*The sun having risen*, the clouds disappeared."

355. These first clauses may be reduced to three, Substantive, Adjective, and Adverbial, uniting the relative with the adjective; and the conditional with the adverbial clauses.

EXERCISES.

Point out the clauses, and phrases; and analyze and parse the sentences.

Some, presuming on the good nature of their friends, write their letters in a hasty and unconnected manner. In short, if a man prefers a life of industry, it is because he has an idea of comfort. The measure is so exceptionable that we can by no means permit it. The youth fond of play, neglects his studies. Pleased with the sight he re-

turned homewards. When the day dawns, the clouds will disappear. Having learned his lesson, he went out to walk.

Complete the sentences containing these clauses :—

Who are fairly entitled. Who rendered himself useful. Who neglected their studies. When the retreat commenced. While yet young. Where you go. That he might be instructed. That time is short. Having arrived at the city.

Write other sentences containing the different clauses.

CHAPTER XXIII.

THE RULES OF SYNTAX.

356. For convenience of reference, the principal rules of syntax are brought together here.

Exceptions will be given in the next chapter.

Rule I. The subject of the finite verb is put in the nominative case.

Rule II. The verb must agree with its subject in number and person.

Rule III. The noun or pronoun in the predicate agrees with the subject in case.

Rule IV. A noun or pronoun, limiting another noun or pronoun, denoting the same person or thing agrees with it in case.

Rule V. A noun or pronoun limiting another noun denoting a different person or thing, is put in the possessive case.

Rule VI. Adjectives modify nouns and pronouns.

Rule VII. The indefinite article limits nouns in the singular number only.

Rule VIII. The definite article limits nouns in the singular or plural number.

Rule IX. Pronouns agree with their antecedents in gender, number, and person.

Rule X. The direct object of the transitive verb is put in the objective case.

Rule XI. Verbs of *asking* and *teaching* are followed by two objective cases, one of the *person*, and the other of the *thing*.

Rule XII. Verbs of *giving*, *granting*, *allowing*, &c, are followed by two objects; the *direct* and *indirect* in the objective case.

Or better, Verbs of *giving*, *granting*, *allowing*, &c, are followed by the *objective* of the *direct* object, and the *dative* of the *indirect* object.

Rule XIII. Verbs of *making*, *choosing*, *rendering*, and *constituting* are followed by two objectives; the one of the *person*, and the other of the *effect produced*.

Rule XIV. Nouns denoting duration of *time*, *distance*, *weight*, *measure*, and *price*, are put in the objective case.

Rule XV. The words *like*, *unlike*, *near*, and *nigh* are followed by the objective case. [Or better, *by the dative*, as that was their former power.]

Rule XVI. Adverbs modify verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs.

Rule XVII. Prepositions connect words and show the relation between them.

Rule XVIII. The object of the preposition is put in the objective case.

Rule XIX. Conjunctions connect sentences, and parts of sentences.

Rule XX. The interjections O! oh! ah! are followed by the objective case of the first person.

Interjections are generally followed by the vocative of the second person.

Rule XXI. The infinitive depends upon verbs, adjectives, and nouns.

Rule XXII. The simple infinitive without *to* is used after *bid, do, feel, have, hear, let, make, need, see*, and also after *may, can, will, shall, and must* in the compound tenses.

Rule XXIII. The infinitive has sometimes a subject in the objective case.

Rule XXIV. Participles refer to nouns and pronouns.

Rule XXV. Verbal nouns are followed by the same cases as the verbs from which they are derived.

Rule XXVI. A noun or pronoun joined with a participle having no dependence upon other words is put in the nominative case absolute.

Rule XXVII. The name of the person or thing addressed is put in the vocative.

CHAPTER XXIV

STRUCTURE OF PROPOSITIONS AND SENTENCES.

357. All sentences consist of only three kinds of combinations; the *Predicative*, the *Attributive*, and the *Objective*.

358. The *Predicative* combination is the simple proposition.

359. Any word or clause added to a noun or word standing for a noun is an *attribute*, and the combination is an *attributive combination*; as, *the wise king*; *that man*; *Cicero the orator*.

360. Any word or clause added to a verb or adjective is an *objective modifier* and the combination is an *objective combination*; as, "God *made man*."

SECTION I. THE PREDICATIVE COMBINATION.

361. The *predicative combination* is the *simple proposition*. It consists of two parts, *subject* and *predicate*, which taken together express one thought, a *judgment* or *affirmation*; as, *John runs*. *Water flows*.

362. The *subject* may be a noun, a pronoun, an adjective used as a *noun*, an infinitive, a clause, or a word used merely as such; as, "*John reads*." "*He is studious*." "*The good are happy*." "*Playing in the fields is pleasant*." "*To lie is base*." "*That all must die is certain*." "*A is an article*." "*Sweet is an adjective*."

363. The *predicate* may be of various forms.

I. *First*, the *simple verb*; as, "*John runs*." "*The wind blows*."

1. Here the connection between *subject* and *predicate* is perfectly evident.

2. When I say "*John running*," the exact relation is uncertain, but when I insert *is* the relation is certain.

3. The verb *is*, is called a *copula*. It serves to connect the assertion with the subject. In "*John is*

running," the predicate is the imperfect participle.

II. *Second*, the predicate is an adjective; as, "The sun is *bright*." The adjective is closely related to the verb and is intermediate between the verb and noun; and is thus fitted to form the predicate.*

III. *Third*, the predicate is a noun; as, "James is a *painter*."

IV *Fourth*, the predicate is a noun and preposition, or adjunct; as, "He is *in good spirits*," that is, "He is *cheerful* or *lively*." "He is *in hopes*," that is, "He is *hopeful*."

The infinitive with *to* is sometimes used in the same manner; as, "He is *to come*," that is, "He is *coming*."

V *Fifth*, the predicate is an adverb; as, "The fire is *out*." "The river is *up*."

EXERCISES FOR ANALYSIS AND PARSING.

Point out the different forms of subject and predicate.

Water flows. Rain falls. Trees grow. Mary is singing. The sun is shining. The sun is hot. The rose is beautiful. Mary and her sister are happy. He is in Paris. The tree is under the hill. The stone is above the spring. The tide is out. The wind is up. To deceive is base. Honor thy father and thy mother, is the command of God.

EXERCISES IN COMPOSITION.

Write these propositions supplying subjects.

*Compare in Latin *Deus vivit* God lives, with *Deus est vivus* God is living.

— and ~~birds~~ gnaw holes in the ceiling. ~~They~~ —, and — grow in the fields. — is going home. Has the — arrived? — is dishonorable. — such disturbance is wrong.

Write these supplying predicates.

The man —. Winds —. Eagles —. The clock is —. The tree is —. My father is —.

Write a few sentences describing a potato, strawberries, a chair.

Let the teacher assign frequently, similar exercises upon common, familiar subjects.

SECTION II. THE ATTRIBUTIVE COMBINATION.

361. The attributive combination also consists of two parts; first the noun, or idea of substance; second, the attribute.* The two express one idea, that of a *substance*; as “*A good man.*” “*A white horse.*”

I. The first attribute is the adjective. When we know that an apple is *sweet*, we speak of it as a *sweet apple*.

1. Thus attributive ideas are derived from predicative; as, “The hill is high,” gives “The high hill;” “James is a painter,” gives “James, the painter.”

2. The participle and the adverb used adjectively are attributives of this class; as, “The *rising* sun.” “The *above* statement.” “The *then* secretary.”

II. The second attribute is the *noun in apposition*, or a noun joined to another denoting the same person or thing; as, “Christ, the *Saviour*, died.” “Thomas, the *carpenter*, is a good man.”

III. Third, the attributive is the *possessive case*; as, “*John’s* hat.” The force of the possessive case

is like that of the adjective. An adjunct may sometimes be substituted for it; as, "The brow *of the mountain*" for the *mountain's* brow."

IV Fourth, the attribute is the *adjunct*; as "A friend *to the cause* is wanted." "A golden crown" is equal to "A crown *of gold*;" "An old man *from Italy*" to "An old *Italian* (man;)" "The house *of my father*" to "My father's house."

Thus the attributes run into each other.

The *infinitive* with *to* is also an attribute; as, "A time *to play*," "A time *for playing*," "A *play* time."

EXERCISES.

Hugh Miller, the Geologist was a mason. The tall pine is a valuable tree. Newton, the great philosopher, was an humble Christian. Mr. Mason's house is elegant. The king of Italy is a brave soldier. The chest of oak is heavy. "The old oaken bucket," was written by Woodworth.

EXERCISES IN COMPOSITION.

365. *Rules for punctuation.*

Rule I. *Two or more nouns following each other in the same construction, are separated by commas (,); as, "John, James, and Mary came."* *When closely connected by conjunctions, they are not separated; as, "Virtue and vice are in strong contrast."*

266. Rule 2. *A single noun in apposition is not separated; but when it is modified by several words, it is then separated by a comma; as, "The apostle Peter." "Peter, the apostle, preached to the Jews." "David the king." "David, the king of the Jews."*

Punctuate these sentences. It is folly presumption wickedness to attempt to supplement God's means of saving souls by mans. John James and Henry came yesterday. Washington the father of his country was born in Virginia.

Complete and punctuate these sentences. Franklin —

was a printer's apprentice. I — write this exercise.
 The love — is universal. — book is missing. The
 — rose is a — flower.

Describe a bell, a violin, a drum, paper.

SECTION III. THE OBJECTIVE COMBINATION.

367 The Objective Combination consists of two parts, a verb or adjective, containing the idea of action, or active properties; and an object towards which that action is directed or by which it is limited. The two expresses but one idea, that of *activity*.

368. The objective modifiers are various.

I. *First*, the objective case or direct object; as, "James studies his *book*." "Studies his book" is the objective combination.

II. Second, the indirect object or dative case; as, He gave *me*, a book.

III. *Third*, the factitive object; or the effect produced; as, They made *him* chairman. "Making chairman" is the assertion, *him* its object. *Him* is the direct object; *chairman* the factitive.

That which any person or thing is appointed, chosen, or constituted, is called the factitive object. Some call it the attributive object.

The *factitive relation* appears in various forms:—

1st. As a noun. "They call him *John*." "They elected him *President*."

2nd. As an adjective. "They counted Socrates *wise*." "He made us *glad*."

3d. As an infinitive. "He should *go*." "They made him *run*."

4th. As an adjunct. "They chose Marius *for a general*."

5th. By the conjunction *as* with words following. "They regard him *as a hypocrite*." "He carried arms *as a show*."

IV *Fourth*, the remote object. This is expressed by an adjunct; as, "He repents *of his folly.*" "He is desirous *of learning.*"

V *Fifth*, the object of place; as, "John is *at home.*" "He lives *here.*" "He has gone to *Sivan-nah.*"

VI. *Sixth*, the object of time; as, "He rose *before sunrise*" "He rose *early.*"

VII. *Seventh*, the object of cause; as, "Socrates died *from poison.*"

VIII. *Eighth*, the object of manner; as, He speaks *kindly.*"

369. An object is anything by which the verb or verbal word is modified or limited.

Adverbs and adjuncts are like each other in use. Indeed the adverb is an abbreviated adjunct.

370. These combinations are the elements of all sentences. They, together with contracted constructions, form language.

EXAMPLE. "A wise man governs his passions." "Man governs" is the predicative; "a wise man" the attributive; "governs his passions," the objective combination.

EXAMPLES FOR ANALYSIS.

Washington, the father of his country, was born in Virginia. The wise Socrates taught the immortality of the soul. The happy children of our friend were playing in the garden. Mary's sister reads well.

EXERCISE IN COMPOSITION.

371. Rule 3. *Two or more adjectives modifying the same subject, are separated from each other by commas;* as, "He was a brave, gentle, dignified man."

Punctuate:—The learned wise and brave Sydney fell. The way was long cold dreary and rough.

Complete these sentences :—John studies French and Latin. James asked me. The strong wind blows fast and the heavy rain falls hard. He has gone home and will return soon.

Write a few sentences describing the "Singing of birds."

SECTION IV INTERMEDIATE OR CONTRACTED PROPOSITIONS.

372. There are certain forms in which the subject and predicate are not fully expressed, but where they are found in a contracted form.

373. The sentences to which they are added, are intermediate between simple and compound sentences.

I. The first is the participle; as, "He answering said."

This when fully expanded is equal to "He answered and said." *Answering* refers to *he* by Rule XXIII.

II. *Second*, the participle used adverbially; as, "He came in singing," that is, "He came in and he was singing." "He fell fighting," that is, "He fell and he was fighting when he fell." It does not mean that the "fighting person fell," but that he was fighting when he fell.

1. It is a participle, representing a contracted proposition modifying the verb by expressing an action, taking place at the same time.

2. This concomitant action is expressed variously:—

1st. By a participle. "He lay *sleeping*." "He stood *confounded*."

2nd. By an adjective. "He sat there *sad*."

3d. By an adjunct. "He talks *in his sleep*." "I live *without hope*."

4th. By a noun preceded by *as*. "He stood *as a spectator*."

III. *Third*, the case absolute, or the noun joined with a participle independent of the rest of the sentence; as, "The enemy advancing, he retreated," that is, "Because the enemy advanced he retreated."

1. In such instances the noun is now put in the nominative case. Anciently, in Saxon and old English it was the dative.

2. So in Milton, "And *him* destroyed or won to what will work his utter loss." The noun joined with the participle in all such cases is different from the subject of the sentence.

IV *Fourth*, the infinitive with *to*, or the Supine; as, "He prepared *to go*," that is, "He prepared that he might go."

This is the infinitive of purpose; as "He reads to learn," "He reads that he may learn."

V *Fifth*, the infinitive with an objective case; as "I advised *him to go*." "I advised him that he should go" or "I advised that he should go." The objective case is never used with the infinitive unless it is different from the subject.

EXERCISES.

Expand the contracted sentences as shown above.

Walking down the street, I met a friend. Having been elected, he accepted the office. His story having been told, he departed. He went away rejoicing. He labored hard to prepare himself for his position. He was anxious to learn. I advised him to return. He bade me go.

EXERCISES IN COMPOSITION.

374. Rule 4. *Two or more verbs or participles in succession, relating to the same subject are separated by commas; as, "We should pity, succour, and defend the poor."*

When participles are followed by modifying words they are generally separated by a comma. "The king, approving the plan, put it in execution."

375. Rule 5. *All absolute expressions must be separated by commas; as, "To confess the truth, I was in fault. "The sun having arisen, the clouds disappeared." "James, come to me."*

*Punctuate:—*We may advise, exhort, reprove or command. Virtue supports in adversity, moderates in prosperity. The clock striking three, we hastened home. The teacher arriving at this moment, put an end to our play.

*Complete these sentences:—*The sun having set ——. Our father returning ——. He entered ——. He — to learn that he ——. He commanded him to —.

Write a short description of the "sounds in the street."

SECTION V COMPOUND SENTENCES.

SUBORDINATE PROPOSITIONS.

376. Propositions may be used like single words.

There are three kinds of propositions when thus used; Substantive, adjective, and adverbial.

377. A substantive proposition is one that may supply the place of a noun.

1. *First*, it may be used as a subject; as, "*That God exists*, is true." "*That all must die*, is certain."

2. *Second*, as the direct object; as, "We know *that summer will come again*." "He said *that the earth was round*."

3. *Third*, as the second object; as, "The Bible teaches us *that God is eternal*."

378. The adjective proposition is one that performs the office of an adjective; as, "The man

who is prudent provides for the future," is equal to "the *prudent* man." "Balbus, who had a sword drew it," is equal to "Balbus having a sword, drew it."

379. An adverbial proposition is one that modifies the leading verb like an adverb.

1. It expresses, first, the place; as, "*Where thou lodgest, I will lodge.*" "I go, *whence I shall not return.*"

2. Secondly, the time; as, "*When the mail arrives, we shall hear the news.*" "*Until I come, wait in patience.*"

3. Thirdly, the manner; as, "Forgive us our debts, *as we forgive our debtors.*" "H speaks *so that he is heard.*"

4. Fourthly, the cause; as, "The pear fell off *because it was ripe.*"

5. Fifthly, intensity; as, "He is *as rich as his brother.*" "*The more* he afflicted them, *the more they multiplied.*"

380. Conditional propositions are a species of adverbial propositions.

They consist of two parts, the condition, and the consequence; or *protasis* and *apodosis*; as, "If he studies, he will learn." "If he studies," is the condition. "He will learn," is the consequence.

381. There are four forms of the conditional proposition.

1st. Where both members are in the indicative* mode; as, "If it rains I cannot go out." Here simple uncertainty is expressed by the condition. The verbs are in the present tense.

2nd. Where the condition is subjunctive or future indicative, and the consequence, indicative;* as, "If it rain (or shall rain) tomorrow I shall not go." Here uncertainty with reference to the future is expressed.

*Or potential.

3d. Uncertainty in regard to the condition; as, If he ever comes we shall know it.

4th. Where the imperfect tense is used in both members; "If I had anything I would give it," *but I havenot*. Here a negation of the condition is always implied.

382. As a general thing, whenever the present tense is used in conditional sentences, simple uncertainty is denoted with reference sometimes to the present, sometimes to the future; but, when the past tense is used, a certainty that what is affirmed or denied is not true, is denoted.

1. "If I have the book" means I am not certain whether I have it or not. "If I had the book" means I have not got it. "If I had not the book" means that I have it.

2. These past tense, thus used, generally refer to present time. "If I had it" means that I have it not now.

3. The same is the case when the conditional conjunctions are not expressed; as, "Had I." "Were I." &c.

EXERCISES.

That the earth is a sphere, is easily proved. When letters were first used, is uncertain. Why he resigned his office, will soon be made known. He whom I loved, is dead. The rewards which are promised, shall be given. Whither thou goest, I will go. When the bell rings, we must go to school. If it does not rain I will come. If I had not the book I would purchase it.

EXERCISES IN COMPOSITION.

383. Rule 6. *Phrases, clauses, and subordinate propositions that are not restrictive are separated by commas.*

By restrictive clauses are meant those which are necessary to express the meaning of the sentence; as, "I love not the person *that slanders his neighbor*." *That slanders his neighbor*, is a restrictive clause modifying *person*.

Some of the principal clauses, &c., thus separated are:—
1. The relative clause, except when restrictive; as, "Ellen, who was up early, came down." "Those who are good, are happy." Where the connection between the antecedent and the relative is very close, as in this last case, the two are not separated. 2. The participial clause. 3. The adverbial clause. 4. Vocative expressions. 5. The phrases *in short, in truth* &c, the words *besides, moreover, namely*, &c.

Punctuate:—Washington who is called the father of his country was the first President. When the wind blows the trees sway before it. He who wants to catch fish however must not mind a wetting.

Write sentences describing the “Sounds in a farm yard.”

SECTION VI. CO-ORDINATE PROPOSITIONS.

384. In the next condition of sentences, independent propositions are brought by the side of each other, and joined together to express one thought; as, “The sun shines, and the air is mild.”

385. This is done in three ways; by uniting them, by opposing them, by accounting for one by means of the other.

386. The first class are called *copulative*; the second, *adversative*; the third, *causal*.

Point out in these propositions the members and connectives.

COPULATIVE PROPOSITIONS.

The sun shines, and the clouds are breaking away. Heaven and earth shall pass away. He has not only heard the lecture, but also understood it. He is both learned and wise. He is poor and happy. He is wise as well as learned.

ADVERSATIVE PROPOSITIONS.

He is not an Englishman, but a Frenchman. The house is convenient, but the garden is waste. Either John or his brother will come.

In such sentences as the last the conjunctive words enter in pairs expressed or understood; as, “*Whether James or John will come is uncertain.*” “*Neither Mary nor her sister are here.*”

CAUSAL PROPOSITIONS.

Enoch was not, for God took him. He is idle, therefore he is poor. He is quarrelsome, therefore people avoid him. He is guilty, for he blushes.

For farther illustrations see the article on classes of conjunctions.

387 When the propositions are so connected together as to form a complete thought they form a Period: as, "God is loved, for he is good."

Periods may be simple or compound. "Though I walk through the valley of the shadow of death, I will fear no evil; for thou art with me" is a compound period. "Though I walk through the valley of the shadow of death, I will fear no evil," is one period. "I will fear no evil for thou art with me," is another. The two form a compound period.

Periods singly or combined form the highest condition of language.

EXERCISES IN COMPOSITION.

388. Rule 7. *Words used in pairs are separated by commas*; as, "Industry and virtue, idleness and vice, go hand in hand."

Punctuate:—Summer and winter seedtime and harvest are the gifts of Providence. Truth is fair and artless simple and sincere uniform and consistent. Whether we eat or drink labor or sleep we should be moderate.

Write sentences containing these words:—Handsome, graceful, diligent, flowers, reading, kind, gentle, country, fields, school, houses. *Describe* a "railroad train."

CHAPTER XXV.

THE RULES OF SYNTAX WITH REMARKS AND ILLUSTRATIONS.

The rules are arranged according to the development of propositions and sentences.

RULE I. THE SUBJECT OF THE VERB.

389. The subject of the finite verb is put in the nominative case.

1. The subject of the imperative is generally understood; as, *Go* (thou.) *Come* (ye.)

2. The nominative regularly precedes the verb, but in imperative and interrogative, and in conditional sentences when the conjunction is omitted, and also when *there*, *here*, *then*, and some other words introduce a sentence, it is placed after the verb; as, "Had *I* been there." "There was a *tree* near by."

3. When interrogative pronouns are used they precede the verb.

4. In answers to questions the noun is frequently used without a verb expressed; as "Who gave it to you?" *Ans.* "John" (gave it to me.)

5. The noun and pronoun must not be used with the same verb; as, "The king is just," not "The king he is just."

Them should not be used for *these* and *those*.

EXERCISES.

Stephen died a martyr to his faith. Napoleon Bonaparte was the first emperor of France. God tempers the wind to the shorn lamb. The trees are laden with fruit. The prudent will be respected, but the careless will be despised.

Correct these sentences:—Them are delightful. Him and me were there. You and me saw them. Are not him and her cousins. The Queen she is a noble lady. John he has gone to school.

EXERCISE IN COMPOSITION.

390. Rule 8. *When a verb or conjunction is omitted, its place is usually supplied by a comma,* as, “James reads, writes, and ciphers.” “From law arises security; from security, curiosity; from curiosity, knowledge.”

Punctuate:—Study makes a learned man experience a wise one. Rapid exhaustless deep, his numbers flowed. The author dreads the critic the miser the thief the criminal the magistrate and every body public opinion.

Complete these sentences: ——— gladdens us. ——— was dear. ——— fell on the battle field. Is ——— at home? ——— is an important study. ——— is the highest duty of man. ——— is honorable, ——— is base.

Write a description of “a bridge.”

RULE II. AGREEMENT OF THE VERB.

391. The verb must agree with its subject in number and person.

1. Every verb must have a subject expressed or understood. In poetry, the nominative is often omitted; as, “Lives there a man who loves his pain.”

2. A singular noun used in a plural sense takes a verb in the plural; as, “Twenty sail were seen.”

3. An intransitive verb between two nominatives of different numbers usually agrees with the first; as, “His meat *was* locusts and wild honey.”

Except in “The wages of sin *is* death.” Some think that *wages* here is singular.

4. The verbs *need*, *want*, and *require*, are sometimes used in a passive sense in the active voice; as, “There

needs no argument to prove, &c." That is "No argument is needed, &c." "There wanted not men to fight in such a cause."

5. Need and dare when intransitive are sometimes used in the plural with a singular subject; as, "She need not go." "He dare not repeat those words."

6. Such expressions as, *as regards*, *as appears*, *as follows*, are equivalent to, *as it regards*, *as it appears*.

Regards, *appears* in such cases are unipersonal verbs agreeing with *it*.

7. Some unipersonal verbs agree with a clause following them; as, "It becomes us *to fulfil all righteousness*." "*To fulfil all righteousness* becomes us." The *it* is an introductory word.

8. Collective nouns, when the assertion is made of the whole of the individuals composing them, as one body, take the verb in the singular; as, "The *court has just ended* its session." But, when it is made of each individual composing it, the verb is plural; as, "A great *multitude hurl* stones and darts."

When *they* may be substituted for the nouns, the verbs must be plural; when *it*, singular.

EXERCISES.

Varro was esteemed a learned man, but Aristotle was called just. To see the sun is pleasant. Titus has been called the delight of the human race. A variety of blessings has been conferred upon us. The morning stars sang together and the sons of God shouted for joy.

EXERCISES TO BE CORRECTED.

The clouds has dispersed. There were three men in the company. What names has the planets? A variety of pleasing prospects charm the eye. There was more imposters than one. She need help; but she needs not remain. Sixty pounds of wheat produces forty pounds of flour. The Legislature have adjourned. The Court does not agree. The assembly was divided. Five brace of

pigeons was sold for one dollar. Fifty cannon was discharged.

EXERCISE IN COMPOSITION.

392. Rule 8. *A comma must be placed before and, or, and nor, when they connect the last of a series of words or of clauses; as, "He runs, leaps, and bounds along. The merciful man will not maim an insect, trample on a worm, or cause an unnecessary pang to the humblest of created beings."*

Punctuate:—Charles Thomas and George are brothers. So eagerly the Fiend o'er bog or steep, through strait rough dense or rare with head hands wings or feet pursues his way.

Complete these:—To steal ———. John ——— his book. The meeting ———. The judges ——— divided in opinion.

Write a description of "a mountain."

SUB-RULE I.

393. *Two or more subject nominatives singular connected by and require a plural verb.*

1. When the nouns thus connected are modified by *each, every, either, neither, and no*, the verb is singular.

2. Singular subjects connected by *and also, as well as*, take the verb in the singular; as, "Caesar, as well as Cicero, was an orator."

3. A singular subject united to another by *with, in company with*, requires a singular verb; as, "The General, with his staff, has come."

4. When the subject-nominatives refer to the same person or thing, the verb is singular; as, "The saint, the father, and the husband prays."

5. A verb may agree with the first noun and be understood with the rest; as, "Thy beauty walks, thy tenderness and love."

6. When the subjects are of different persons the verb prefers the first to the second, and the second to the third; as, "James and I are going."

EXERCISES.

Reason and truth constitute intellectual gold. Riches, honors, and pleasures, steal away the heart from religion. He and I are foes. My aunt, with her daughter, was here yesterday.

To fish and hunt are pleasant. Either sex and every age was engaged in the pursuits of industry. His ready wit, together with his varied acquirements, makes him an agreeable companion.

TO BE CORRECTED.

Much do human pride and folly require correction. Idleness and ignorance is the parent of many vices. The general, with several soldiers, were taken. Virtue, and not riches, produce esteem.

EXERCISE IN COMPOSITION.

394. Rule 9. *A comma should be placed before and, or, if, but, and that, when they connect short sentences; as, "You must come with me, or I will go with you."*

Punctuate:—Stephen saw his cousin coming and ran to meet her. My horse is not handsome, but he trots well. Be virtuous that you may be esteemed.

Write sentences containing these expressions:—Hard study. Ignorance and idleness. Geography teaches us. Birds nests. Fought bravely The tops of high mountains.

Describe "a river."

SUB-RULE II.

395. *Two or more subject nominatives singular connected by or or nor require a singular verb.*

1. When subjects of different numbers are thus connected the verb should be plural, and the plural

subject if possible be placed next to it; as, "Neither poverty nor riches were his."

2. If the substantives are of different persons the verb agrees with the nearest. "Thou, he, or I am going."

3. It is better in such cases that the verb should follow each subject; as, "Either thou art mistaken, or he is."

EXERCISES.

Ignorance or negligence has caused the mistake. Neither the captain nor the sailors were acquainted with the coast. One or both of the witnesses were present. Thou mayst go, or he, but not both.

TO BE CORRECTED.

James or Charles were in fault. Neither fear nor jealousy affect him. Either thou or he art to blame. Either George or I has the work to perform. Were this philosopher and poet, or his critic in the wrong? Have the dictionary, the spelling book, or the grammar been found.

EXERCISE IN COMPOSITION.

396. Rule 10. *When the logical subject consists of many words, or ends with a verb, it is cut off by a comma; as, "Whatever breathes, lives."*

*Punctuate:—*Every impure angry revengeful and envious thought is a violation of duty. The evil that men do lives after them.

*Write sentences containing these clauses:—*Those who are virtuous.—The rain having ceased.—The boy who studies.—The place in which we live.—By reading good books.—Having arisen.—

RULE III. THE PREDICATE NOUN OR PRONOUN.

397 The noun or pronoun in the predicate agrees with the subject in case.

1. It does not always agree with it in number; as, "Honest men are the salt of the earth." "*Sixpence is twelve half pennies.*" •

2. The verbs that admit a noun in the predicate are *to be*, *to become* and the passive voice of such verbs as *to name*, *to render*, *to make*, *to esteem*, &c.

3. When the predicate noun follows the infinitive, it is put in the objective case; as, "I knew him to be a knave." Except in such sentences, as "*To be a learned man is no easy attainment.*" Man is in the nominative used absolutely.

4. A noun after the participle of an intransitive verb or passive voice is put in the same case as the noun or pronoun which the participle modifies; as, "Being a soldier, I could not resist the call."

5. Except when the participle is preceded by the possessive; as, "I am suspicious of his being a rogue" or "that he is a rogue." "His being a rogue" is the object of *of*. *Rogue* is in the nominative absolute. •

EXERCISES.

Clement was the name of many popes. Cæsar was not only a great general, but an orator and a historian. What is the hour? We thought him to be a rogue. Brutus is represented as having been an ardent lover of his country. I am tired of being an idler. He is angry with me on account of my being a friend to his enemy. •

TO BE CORRECTED.

It was not him that said it. It cannot be him. Whom are you? I did not think of its being him. I could not believe it was her. •



EXERCISE IN COMPOSITION.

398. Rule 11. *In a complex sentence, the dependent clause is separated by a comma from the principal clause;*

as, "When our vices leave us, we flatter ourselves that we leave them."

Punctuate:—The temperate man's pleasures are durable because they are regular. When we go to the city, we part with the pleasures of the country. Whither thou goest I will go, and where thou lodgest I will lodge.

Write sentences containing these expressions:—A hundred years hence. Before Columbus discovered America. After the storm ceased. Where the river rises. Down by the river side.

RULE IV APPPOSITION.

399. A noun or pronoun limiting another noun or pronoun denoting the same person or thing, agrees with it in case; as, "Paul, the apostle." "Ye, men of Athens."

1. The noun thus limiting another is said to be in *apposition*. It is joined to it, for the sake of explaining it more particularly; as, "James, the painter." *Painter* limits James and tells who is meant.

2. A noun may be in apposition with anything that may stand in the place of a noun; an *adjective*, *infinitive*, *phrase*, or *sentence*; as, "*You write and speak correctly*, a habit you should cultivate."

3. A phrase or sentence may be in apposition with a noun; as, "My motion, *that the subject be laid on the table*, prevailed."

4. A noun denoting the whole is sometimes followed by other words denoting the parts; as, "They travelled in company, *some on horseback, some in carriages, others on foot*. So, "They fled, *every man to his tent*." "They love *each other*."

5. When two nouns come together in the possessive case, the sign is annexed to the last; as, "John, the Baptist's head."

6. A noun in apposition with two or more nouns is put in the plural; as "Romulus and Remus, *grandsons* of Numitor."

7 In sentences like, "My father intended me as the tithe of his sons," some parse *tithe* in apposition with *me*; others, as in the objective case after *as*, as a preposition, meaning in "the character of" This phrase may be substituted for *as* in all such cases, but there is nothing in the word itself to warrant it.

It is more consistent to parse *tithe* in the objective case connected by *as* with *me* and governed by *devote*.

In "His office as judge must be responsible"; *judge* is usually parsed in the possessive in apposition with *his*.

But it is the office, the judgeship, that is responsible; and it seems to me better to parse *judge* as connected by *as* with *office* and, therefore, in the same case.

EXERCISES.

Herschel, the astronomer, discovered the planet Uranus. You are too humane and considerate, things few people can be charged with. To travel comfortably, a very necessary thing in my case was impossible. You write very carelessly, a habit you must correct. It can be found at Jones, the bookseller's shop. I am pleased with your appointment as chaplain. Forever honored be this, the place of our father's refuge. I, Victoria, Queen of England, make proclamation. They have fallen; each in his field of glory.

TO BE CORRECTED.

Such was the career of Burns, he who delighted a whole nation with his songs. They killed the chief, he who was at the fort yesterday. They stopped at Brown's the merchants. They went each their own way. Thomas and James, our cousin has come.

EXERCISE IN COMPOSITION.

400. Rule 12. *When transposition occurs, so that a phrase or adjunct which naturally follows the verb precedes it, a comma is used*; as, "To those who labor, sleep is doubly pleasant, for, "Sleep is doubly pleasant to those who labor."

Punctuate:—Of all the passions vanity is the most unsocial. Whether such a person as Homer ever existed, we cannot say. How the old magicians performed their miracles is difficult to explain.

Write a description of a wagon; point out its parts and their uses. Describe the materials of which it is made; show their origin, and the different processes and workman required.

RULE V THE POSSESSIVE CASE.

401. A noun or pronoun limiting another noun denoting a different person or thing is put in the possessive case, as "John's hat." "His book."

1. The limited noun is often omitted when it may be easily known; as, I dined at Johnson's (house.)

2. When the thing possessed belongs to two or more persons, the sign is annexed to the last; as, "John, James, and William's house."

3. But when it belongs to each person separately it must be added to each; as, Worcester's and Webster's dictionaries.

4. When several words are combined together as one term, the sign of the possessive is annexed to the last; as, "The King of Saxony's army." "The King of Saxony's" is one term, and should be parsed together as a modifier of army.

5. When possessives are in apposition, if the

noun limited is omitted, the sign is added to the first; as, "I saw him at Brown's, the bookseller and stationer."

6. The objective with *of* is usually equivalent to the possessive; as, "The advice of my father," or "My father's advice."

7. When the thing possessed is one of a number, the possessive and adjunct are both used; as, "A friend of his brother's," or "One of his brother's friends."

8. When a noun depends upon a participle it is put in the possessive case; as "His father's being a judge had some influence." "John's having been a soldier secured him the appointment."

9. According to past usage the verbal noun does not receive an article, an adjective, or a possessive case before it. It then has the government of a verb; as, "He was engaged in reading Plato." "By establishing good laws we secure peace."

10. When it receives attributive modifiers it ceases to be a verbal noun, and becomes an abstract noun, and cannot according to past usage have the government of a verb. Compare, "Useful for the clear understanding of the word," and "Useful for clearly understanding the word."

11. The tendency is to drop the *of* following these abstract verbals and make them govern a case; as, "It will depend on my father's giving his consent." "The mixing them makes a miserable jumble."

This is not justified by the spirit of the language.

EXERCISES.

Man's extremity is God's opportunity. Whose works are these? They are Cicero's, the most eloquent of men. He accompanied me to St. Mary's. Peter, John, and Andrew's occupation was that of fishermen.

The Queen of Great Britain's proclamation has just been issued. Smith brothers' and Thompson's stores are the largest. By studying diligently we improve.

TO BE CORRECTED.

Webster or Johnson's dictionary. McCarter's and Dawson's bookstore. There is no danger of that complaint being made at present. This was your father's estate. One man's loss is another man's gain. Williams books are better than James's. David and Solomon's reigns were prosperous. This was a discovery of Sir Isaac Newton. The medicine was procured at Brown the apothecary and druggist's.

EXERCISE IN COMPOSITION.

402. Rule 13. *A comma is used to separate words and clauses, expressing contrast, or opposition; as,*

"Liberal, not lavish, is kind nature's hand."

"Though deep, yet clear; though gentle, yet not dull."

Punctuate:—A good man will love himself too well to *lose*, and his neighbor too well to *win*, an estate by gaming. Not only in union with, but in opposition to the views and conduct of one another.

Describe a slate, giving its form; the materials of which it is made, their qualities, their origin; and its uses, together with anything else you can think of concerning it.

RULE VI. ADJECTIVES.

403. Adjectives modify nouns and pronouns, as, "A *good* man." "He is *wise*."

I. DESCRIPTIVE ADJECTIVES.

1. Adjectives may be used both as predicates and attributes.

2. Adjectives are sometimes used to modify other adjectives; as, a *bright blue* pitcher, *pale red* silk, *red hot* iron. Participles are also sometimes used in this manner; as, *roaring* drunk, *loving* jealous, *staring* mad.

3. An adjective may modify a noun and another

adjective taken together; as, "A fine *bay horse*." "A pretty *wooden bowl*."

4. The adjective may modify anything that can take the place of a noun; as, "*To see the sun* is pleasant." "*To lie* is base." "*Whether we shall go* is uncertain."

5. With infinitives and participles the adjective is sometimes used indefinitely; as, "*To be wise and good* is to be great and noble." "*Being honest* is better than being wealthy."

These are contracted expressions in which *wise* and *good* stand in the predicate.

6. Several intransitive verbs, as *look, seem, feel, taste, smell, shine, remove, stand, continue*, &c., receive an adjective modifying the subject after them; as, "He looks *cold*." These two ideas *looking* and *cold* are asserted of *he*.

With such verbs, if the subject is to be modified, the adjective is used; if the predicate, the adverb; as, "She looks *cold*." "She looks *coldly* on him."

7. When the adjective expresses the factitive relation it modifies transitive verbs; as, "The news made us *glad*." "Making glad" is the assertion, "us" its object. Such adjectives *agree* with the object, but *modify* the verb.

8. Adjectives are sometimes used as adverbs; as, "*Softly* sighed the flute." This use is found chiefly in the poets.

As a general rule, adjectives must not be used as adverbs.

9. Adjectives are sometimes used as nouns when preceded by the definite article, sometimes without; as, "The wise, the good." "The beautiful." "Good and evil."

10. Nouns and phrases are sometimes used as adjectives; as, "A *stone floor*." "A *brick house*." "*Off-hand* manner."

11. When two objects are compared, the comparative is used; when more than two, the superlative.

12. When the comparative is used the latter

term must exclude the former; as, "Texas is larger than any other State." When the superlative is used the latter must include the former; as, "Socrates was the wisest of the Athenians."

13. Double comparatives and superlatives should be avoided.

14. In forms like this, "Wilson is a better blacksmith than a carpenter." if two persons are meant, the article should be used; if but one, it should not.

II. DEFINITIVE ADJECTIVES.

15. Adjectives that have number must agree with their nouns in number; as, *one* day, *ten* days, *this* man, *these* men.

16. The distributive adjectives require the nouns, pronouns, and verbs with which they are used to be in the singular; as, "Every tree is known by its fruit."

Except when they are joined with numerals; as, "Every ten years."

17. *Many* is used with a singular noun when *a* is prefixed; as, "Many a man."

18. *Either* is sometimes used for each; as, "On either side one."

19. *Both* is put in apposition with pronouns to render them emphatic; as, "I will teach you *both*."

20. *Some* with numerals signifies about; as, "Some ten years ago."

21. *Them* should not be used in place of *these* and *those*.

III. POSITION OF THE ADJECTIVE.

22. The adjective is generally placed immediately before its noun.

23. It is placed after it:—

1. When it is limited by an adjunct; as, Food *convenient* for me.

2. When it expresses a title; as, Alexander, the *great*.

3. When it is a predicate; except for emphasis; as, "*Great* is the Lord."

4. When expressing the factitive relation; as, "God made all things *good*."

5. When it modifies a pronoun in the objective case; as, "We found her *well*."

6. When *time*, *number*, *dimension*, and *value* are denoted; as, "He is four years *old*"; "twenty thousand *strong*"; "a wall three feet *thick*"; "a book *worth* a dollar."

7. *All* is sometimes separated by *the* from its noun; *such* and *many* by *a*.

8. Adjectives modified by *so* and *as* are separated by *a*; as, "so rich a dress."

9. Some adjectives are used only in the predicate; others are placed after their nouns for the sake of emphasis or poetic usage.

EXERCISES.

The good man is happy. To advance was difficult, to retreat, dangerous. Whether he will come or not is uncertain. He was dressed in a light blue suit and rode on a dark bay horse. A beautiful young lady was leading a venerable old man. To become learned and great is a work of much difficulty. The hay smells sweet. The wind blows chill. He stood still. And louder yet and yet more dread swells the high trump that wakes the dead. Hope deferred maketh the heart sick. Thou makest the earth soft with showers. Men call the prosperous, happy. We were made glad. It is but a step from the sublime to the ridiculous. Solomon was wiser than any Roman king. Numa was wiser than any other Roman king. He was the wisest of all the Roman kings. This boy is industrious, that one is idle. A stone wall encloses yonder old brick church. Each man must act for himself.

TO BE CORRECTED.

A new barrel of flour. A green load of wood. A new pair of shoes. She reads proper and writes neat. He was such an extravagant man that he soon wasted his property. A tree fifty foot high. Young promising men are often lead astray by temptation. Jupiter is larger than any

planet. The elephant has more instinct than any animal. I see good. We stood silently. Henry is the elder of the three brothers. James is the oldest of the two. Those sort of favors. Bring me ~~them~~ pens. Neither of the men ~~has~~ reason to complain.

EXERCISE IN COMPOSITION.

404. Rule 14. *Members of sentences, containing correlative adverbs and conjunctions are separated by commas; as, "The harder we study, the better we like to study."*

Punctuate:—As a cloud darkens the sky, so sorrow darkens the mind. As thy day so shall thy strength be. As far as the heavens are above the earth so far are thy thoughts above my thoughts.

Write an account of what you saw on your way to school.

RULE VII. THE INDEFINITE ARTICLE.

405. The indefinite article limits nouns in the singular number only

RULE VIII. THE DEFINITE ARTICLE.

406. The definite article limits nouns in the singular or plural numbers; as, "The man;" "the men."

1. When the meaning of the noun requires no limitation the article is omitted; as, "Man is mortal." "Honor to whom honor is due."

2. Proper and abstract nouns are definite in themselves and do not require the article. In some peculiar emphatic expressions the article is used; as, "The Douglass and the Percy."

3. Before certain proper nouns which are preceded by adjectives or are used like adjectives themselves the the article is used; as, "The great

Milton." "The French (people.)" "The Andes (mountains.)"

4. When proper nouns are used to represent a class the article is used ; as, "He is the Cicero of his age." "He is not a Washington."

5. The article is sometimes used to modify the meaning of an adjective or adverb ; as, "*A few* men." "*A hundred* men." Compare *five hundred* men. "*The more*." "*The Stronger*." "*The oftener* I see it, *the better* I like it."

6. Before *little* and *few*, *a* has a peculiar force. "He has a little reverence," means he has *some*, but not *much*. "He has little reverence," expresses a doubt whether he has any. "He needs little aid." "He needs a little aid."

7. When two or more adjectives modify one object the article is placed before the first only ; as, "A red and white flag." "A large and convenient house."

But if they modify different objects it must stand before each ; as "A red and a white flag," that is, two flags.

8. Where each adjective is to be made emphatic the article is repeated ; as, "The learned, the eloquent, the patriotic Chatham."

9. Where from habit, two different objects are associated together, the article is not repeated ; as, "I saw a man and horse." "The father and mother of the child."

10. There is a great nicety in the proper use of the article which is not sufficiently regarded.

(1.) It is sometimes improperly omitted ; as "He will guide you into all truth," all *the* truth, as it is in Christ. "All the chief priests and elders of the people," *the* elders. "The remembrance of the dead and living," and *the* living.

(2.) It is sometimes superfluous ; as, "Even Terah, the father of Abram and the father of Nachor," and of Nachor.

(3.) The repetition of the article often adds force and distinctness ; as, "They shall fall by the sword, by the famine, and by the pestilence." "They would still maintain, the virtue, the felicity, and the empire of the Roman people." "A cool head, an unfeeling heart, and a cowardly disposition prompted him."

See farther in Harrison, "On the English Language."

EXERCISES.

Man was made to mourn. He was elected President. Darest thou then to beard the lion in his den, the Douglass in his hall. He will never become a Demosthenes. A large and convenient house. A large and a convenient house are not always united. He possessed the various talents of the soldier, the statesman, and the scholar.

TO BE CORRECTED.

I mean not the doer but deed. It is a honor to be here. She lived in an age of chivalry. The book is equally fitted to the young and old. Practise the patience and the long suffering. He claimed the title of a gentleman. A lion is generous, a fox is cunning. The silver is not so valuable as the gold. He owned a small and large house. The old and new method of writing.

EXERCISES IN COMPOSITION.

407 Rule 15. *The Semicolon (;) is placed between the members of compound sentences, unless they are very closely connected ;* as, "Doubt and distraction are on earth ; the brightness of truth is in heaven."

Punctuate :—Lying lips are an abomination to the Lord but they that deal truly are his delight. "The gem has lost its sparkle scarce a vestige of its brilliancy remains."

Speak well of your friend of your enemy neither well nor ill.

Write a letter to some friend describing your last visit.

RULE IX. PRONOUNS.

408. Pronouns agree with their antecedents in gender, number, and person.

Their case depends upon the construction of the sentence.

1. Pronouns, referring to two or more nouns taken together, must be plural ; as, "George and Thomas excel in their studies."

2. When the nouns are of different persons the

pronoun prefers the first person to the second, and the second to the third ; as, "Thou, he and I excel in our studies. "Thou and he excel in your studies."

3. When the nouns are taken separately the pronoun is singular ; as, "Neither James nor John was diligent in his studies." If one of the nouns is plural the pronoun is plural ; as, "Neither the captain nor sailors were aware of their danger."

4. If the noun is of the "common" gender singular number, the pronoun is made masculine ; as, "Let every pupil attend to his studies."

Expressions like this are also found ; "Let every boy or girl attend to his or her studies." The first is preferable.

5. Collective nouns when signifying plurality take a plural pronoun ; when signifying unity, a singular ; as, "The court disagree in their opinions." "Every nation has its troubles."

6. The same form of the pronoun must be used throughout ; "I sought to make you happy, but thou hast brought misery upon thyself," is improper.

7 *It* is often used without reference to the gender, number, or person of its antecedent :

(1.) For the plural. *It* was the heretics who first began to rail.

(2.) For the masculine or feminine. *It* is *he*. *It* is *she*.

(3.) For the first or second person. *It* is *I*. *It* is *thou*.

(4.) For a phrase or sentence. "*It* is impossible to please all men." "*It* is possible that it may be so."

(5.) As the subject of a unipersonal verb. *It* rains. *It* hails.

(6.) It is sometimes used indefinitely; as, "They lorded *it* over the land."

8. The compound personal pronouns are used in apposition for the sake of emphasis; as, "I *myself*." "I saw the man *himself*."

9. *Who* is applied to persons or objects personified. *Which* to animals and things. It was formerly applied to persons also; as, "Our Father, *which* art in Heaven." *Which* as an interrogative is applied to persons as well as things. *That* is used for *who* or *which*, especially in these cases:

(1.) After the superlative degree; as, "The wisest man *that* ever lived is liable to error."

(2.) After *same*, *very*, and *all*; as, "The *same* man *that* I saw."

(3.) After *who*, to prevent a repetition; as, "Who *that* has the spirit of a man would permit this."

10. The relative generally follows its antecedent and should stand as near it as possible; as, "He *that* tries to overreach others often overreaches himself," not "He often overreaches himself *that* tries to overreach others."

EXERCISES.

He who overcomes his passions conquers his greatest enemies.* Venerable men! You have come down to us from a former generation. It was neither he nor his brother that brought the intelligence. God ended his work which he had made. Every tree is known by its fruit. It is a brother of the prince. The men and things that he saw. You and Charles and I must attend to our business.

TO BE CORRECTED.

Every person should love their friend and do good to them. No person should boast of themselves. Every one must judge of their own feelings. The nobility usually have somestitle conferred upon them. He is the same man whom I saw. Who which has common sense can think so. The army whom he commands is well disciplined.

EXERCISE IN COMPOSITION.

409. Rule 16. *The semicolon is used between great divisions of sentences, even though closely connected, when*

subdivisions occur, separated by the comma; as, "America, otherwise called the New World was discovered in 1492; but it was not settled till some years afterwards."

*Punctuate :—*The Jews ruin themselves at their Pass-over, the Moors at their marriages the Christians at their lawsuits. The poisoned valley of Java is twenty miles in length, and of considerable width it presents a desolate appearance being entirely destitute of vegetation.

Write a description of a garden. Point out the different vegetables it contains; the manner of cultivating them and their uses.

RULE X. THE DIRECT OBJECT.

410. The direct object of the transitive verb is put in the objective case; as, "James reads his book." "I love him."

1. Infinitives, phrases, and sentences may be used as the object; as, "He loves *to study*." "He saw *how few returned*." "I hope *that they are safe*."

2. Verbs that are followed by a clause are those that express operations of the mind like *wish, hope, fear, think, deserve, suppose, see, hear, feel, say, tell, assert, report, answer, respond*.

3. Some intransitive verbs govern the objective of a noun of kindred signification; as, "To *live* a life of virtue." "To *die* the death of the righteous."

4. In a few idiomatic, or peculiar, expressions, intransitive verbs are made to govern an objective case; as, "Look *danger* in the face." "We talked the *hours* away." "The trees wept *odorous gums*." "They laughed *him* to scorn."

5. Some causative verbs govern the objective, which are otherwise intransitive; as, "Dance the *child*." "Trot the *horse*."

6. Transitive verbs govern the objective without the aid of a preposition.

7. Some verbs naturally intransitive, when compounded with prepositions, govern a case and are called *compound transitive* verbs; as, "She smiled on him." "He laughed at him." The preposition is retained in the passive; as, "He was laughed at." "He was much thought of"; better say "He was much esteemed."

8. The Participials govern the same cases as their verbs.

EXERCISES.

Disappointment depresses the heart of man. Foolish pursuits delight some persons. Evil communications corrupt good manners. Conversation enriches the understanding, but solitude is the school of genius. He is learning to write. He felt that it was too late. He answered that he would go. Some men would rather sleep the sleep of death than live a life of idleness. Coursing in its pebbly channel the brook ran nectar.

TO BE CORRECTED.

Who did they send? He that is idle reprove. Lend to me your book. I premise with a few remarks. Will you accept of my gift. He I must punish. He shall not want for anything. They grow rice and cotton. I have to return the book.

EXERCISE IN COMPOSITION.

411. Rule 17 *Before an enumeration of particulars and before the conjunction introducing an example the semicolon is used*; as, "There are three genders; masculine, feminine, and neuter."

Punctuate :—There are three cases the nominative possessive and objective. After ah! oh! pronouns of the first person are generally in the objective case as Ah me!

Write a description of a coin. Point out its shape, its material, the inscriptions upon it, its uses and anything else you can think about it.

RULE XI. THE DOUBLE OBJECT.

412. Verbs of asking and teaching are followed by two objective cases, one of the person, and the other of the thing; as, "He asked him a question."

1. Sentences like "He taught him Grammar," may be resolved into two independent sentences; as, "He taught him." "He taught Grammar."

2. When they are changed into the passive voice, either object may become the subject, while the other remains in the objective; as, "Grammar was taught him," or "He was taught Grammar." The first is generally preferred, though not by all.

3. The infinitive is sometimes used as one of the objects; as, "I asked him to go." "He was asked to go." "He taught me to write." "I was taught to write."

RULE XII. THE DIRECT AND INDIRECT OBJECTS.

413. Verbs of giving, granting, allowing, &c., are followed by two objects, the direct and indirect in the objective case.

Or better. *Verbs of giving, granting, allowing, &c., are followed by the objective of the direct object and the dative of the indirect, as "He gave me a book." Book is the direct; me, the indirect.*

1. The verbs that take this form of modification are *allow, bring, buy, deny, gain, get, give, obtain, offer, pay, prepare, procure, promise, provide, refuse, sell, send, tell, yield.*

2. The indirect or dative object comes between the verb

and the direct object; as, "He sold him a house." If it follows the direct object, it becomes an adjunct; as, "He sold a house *to him*." This distinguishes it from all other forms.

3. An infinitive or clause may take the place of the direct object; as, "He told him *to write*," "He told him *that he might go*."

4. The passive of these verbs is regularly formed by making the direct object the subject, while the indirect remains in the objective or dative; as, "A book was given him."

5. Sometimes the indirect object is made the subject; as, "I was promised a present." The direct object then remains objective.

EXERCISES.

I asked him a question. Thomas taught his brother arithmetic. Grammar was taught him by William. They allowed me credit. John brought her a chair. William bought his father a farm. A present was given me. He promised them a ride. The farmer sold me a horse.

EXERCISES IN COMPOSITION.

414. Rule 15. A Colon (:) is placed between the great divisions of sentences, when subdivisions occur, separated by the semicolon; as, "I admire you, my friend; I love you; but you must not expect me to make this sacrifice."

* *Punctuated*:—We perceive the shadow to have moved along the dial but did not see it moving we observe that the grass has grown though it was impossible to see it grow so the advances we make in knowledge, consisting only of minute and gradual steps are perceivable only after intervals of time.

Write a description of a watch. Point out its parts and their uses; the materials of which it is made; the tools employed; and any thing else you know about it.

RULE XIII. THE OBJECT OF EFFECT OR FACTITIVE OBJECT

415. Verbs of making, choosing, rendering, and constituting are followed by two objectives, one of the person, and the other of the effect produced; as, "They made him a judge."

1. They are *make, appoint, elect, create, constitute, render, name, style, call, esteem, think, consider, regard, reckon, and some others.*

2. The object of the effect is now called the *factitive* object from *factus* made. Other names have been given it, but this is the simplest and most expressive.

3. When I say "They chose him President; *him* is the direct object, and *President* is what *he* becomes by the act of choosing, *choosing him* is the assertion and *him* is its object.

4. The difference between the *factitive* object and apposition is well shown in this sentence, "They chose Cicero, the celebrated orator, consul." Here *consul* is manifestly in quite a different relation from *orator*.

5. The dative object is the person interested in the action expressed by the verb; the factitive is the effect produced, "He gave his life *for his prince*." "*For his prince*" is the dative object. "He gave his life *for a sacrifice*." "*For a sacrifice*" is the factitive.

6. In the passive voice the direct object becomes the subject, while the factitive takes the same case as the subject; as, "He was appointed dictator."

7. The factitive relation may also be expressed by an adjective, "The news made us glad;" by an infinitive both simple and supine, "He made him labor." "They appointed him to go;" by an adjunct, "They chose him for a general."

EXERCISES.

The consul appointed Titus Manlius, a very brave man. dictator. He makes his tent a palace. They called him Peter. He painted the house red. They sent him as an ambassador. They took him prisoner. He smote him dead. Washington was chosen president. We were made to rejoice by the news you sent. He was considered a hypocrite.

EXERCISE IN COMPOSITION.

416. Rule 19. *Every complete sentence must end with a period (.)*; as, Honesty is the best policy.

When sentences are united by connection or dependence the period is placed after the last only. Compare: "The

sun shines." "The clouds disappear," with "The sun shines and the clouds disappear." "The man is happy, who is virtuous."

Write a letter to any friend giving an account of your studies.

RULE XIV TIME, DISTANCE, WEIGHT, &C.

417 Nouns denoting duration of time, distance, weight, measure, and price, are put in the objective case.

1. These relations follow verbs and adjectives and are a species of objective modification.

2. The objective case denotes the object where the motion or action ends; "He strikes the tree." *Tree* is the object upon which the action terminates. "He walked a mile." The action terminates at "the distance of a mile."

3. *Home* is also put in the objective case after verbs of motion; as, "He has gone home." "He is coming home." *Home*, however, is considered by many an adverb in such cases.

4. When any particular time is referred to, a preposition is commonly used; as, "He arrived on Wednesday last."

EXERCISES.

Moses dwelt forty years in the land of Midian. David reigned seven years in Hebron. My father arrived last Monday. He will return on Thursday. I have walked five miles this morning. The tree is one hundred feet high. The house is twenty feet square. This field contains ten acres. Wheat is worth seven shillings a bushel. It cost five dollars.

EXERCISE IN COMPOSITION.

418. *A period must be placed after every abbreviation:*
as, Dr. Geo. F. Johnson, F. R. S.

If the abbreviation occurs in the sentence (not at the end) the period does not take the place of other points; as, "My clerk put the letter in the P. O.; there can be no mistake."

Punctuate:—"A description of this scene may be found in Gibbon's Hist of the Decand Fall of the Rom. Emp, Vol I, Chap. 5

Write a description of a piece of bread. Tell what it is made of; where the grain grows; how it is cultivated; what animals and tools are used; how it is prepared for mill; how it is made into flour; how into bread.

RULE XV LIKE, UNLIKE, &C.

419. The words like, unlike, near, and nigh, are followed by the objective case; as, "He is like his father." Or better. Like, unlike, near, and nigh, govern the dative.

1. Some make these words prepositions governing the objective case; others understand *to* or *unto* after them.

2. But these words like similar words in other languages govern a case directly. In Saxon *like* and *unlike* governed the dative and that is the natural power of these words now.

EXERCISES.

James is like his father. He is unlike his brother. The Assyrian came down like a wolf on the fold. Like me he is anxious to go. There is no one like him now.

The house stands near the old oak tree. It is near you. It is nigh thee, even at the door.

RULE XVI. ADVERBS.

420. Adverbs modify verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs; as, "The horse ran rapidly." "It is very pretty." "He was treated most kindly."

1. Adverbs sometimes modify other parts of speech beside these; also phrases and adjuncts.

(1.) Prepositions. "*Just* below the surface." He sailed *nearly* round the globe.

(2.) Nouns. "Blessed be God, *even* the Father." "Not in *word only*, but in power." "The *then* ministry." The last should not be imitated.

(3.) Phrases. "I lived *almost* in vain." Which is so *at war* with nature."

(4.) Adjuncts. "*Independently* of these considerations."

2. Adverbs are sometimes used independently. This is especially the case with, *yea, yes, no, nay, amen*. They are equivalent to a whole sentence; as, "Are you going? Yes;" that is, "I am going." Properly they are not *adverbs*, but *affirmative* and *negative* particles.

3. Adverbs are sometimes used as expletives without any special modification; as, "*why*, I had not heard it." "*Indeed*, is it so?"

4. *There* is used as an introductory word, when the subject is placed after the verb; as, "*There* was a man." It has then no modifying power.

5. Adverbs are sometimes used as nouns; as, "Since *when* has this state of things come about?" "Till *then*." "until *now*."

6. *Here* properly means *in this place; hither, to this place; hence, from this place*, but usage now substitutes *here, there, where*, for *hither, thither, whither*; and places *from* before *hence, thence*. *From*, however, is unnecessary. ~ * ●

7. Two negatives in the same clause are equivalent to an affirmation; as, "I am *not unacquainted* with him." Unless intended to make an affirmation two negatives should not be used.

8. *Where* may be used for *in which*, only in reference to a place; "The spot where I was born;" but not "The book where I found it," but "In which I found it."

POSITION OF ADVERBS.

9. Adverbs should stand near the words they modify ; as, " We always find them ready." " We find them always ready."

Here *always* is correctly placed in both instances but conveys a different meaning in each.

10. They generally stand before adjectives, after verbs in the simple tenses, and after the first auxiliary in the compound tenses ; as, " He is very kind." " He spoke *kindly*." " He will *not* have gone."

11. *Enough* is placed after adjectives ; as, " He is not tall enough."

12. *Never*, *ever*, *always*, and *seldom* generally precede the verb in the simple tenses ; as, " He *never* tells the truth."

13. The adverb modifying the infinitive must not come between the sign *to* and the verbal word.

EXERCISES.

The stage started early. Mary writes beautifully. The wind blows fiercely. We easily forget our own misdeeds. The ambitious often deceive themselves. Virtue is often neglected. No one should return an injury. The river flows yonder.

TO BE CORRECTED.

We always should prefer happiness to pleasure. I never did repent of doing good nor shall not now. Never so little labor wearies her. The bridge will be never completed. This construction sounds rather harshly. I have near finished this lesson. He was scarce sensible of it. He reads the paper before breakfast always. The passage where I saw the word has escaped me. He has been deceived certainly. Murat was seen to gallantly charge into the thickest of the fight.

EXERCISE IN COMPOSITION.

421. Arrange these sentences differently without changing their meaning.

Example. "London is the largest city in the world."
 "The largest city in the world is London."

The night was dark. Mournfully the wind sighed among the branches. The Amazon is the largest river in the world. At last the spring has come. There hangs the picture of my father. Let me go I beseech you. Washington is buried at Mount Vernon on the banks of the Potomac. Suddenly a shout arose.

RULE XVII. THE RELATION OF PREPOSITIONS.

422. Prepositions connect words and show the relation between them: as. "He came with me."

1. The preposition with its object is called an adjunct.

2. It shows the relation between its object and the word that they as an adjunct modify.

3. The preposition stands regularly before its object.

4. Two prepositions are sometimes used before a single noun for the sake of perspicuity: as. "They were never revealed to, nor confronted with, the prisoner." This should be avoided unless required for precision.

The same remark applies to a transitive verb and preposition: as. "And may readily associate with, and promote either."

5. Two or more words are sometimes combined as a compound preposition; as. "From between the arcades the eye glances up to a bit of blue sky."

6. Appropriate prepositions must follow certain words: as, "I am interested in the book" not *with*.

7. A list of the words and prepositions most liable to erroneous use is given below.

Abhorrence <i>of</i> .	Abound <i>in</i> .
Accuse <i>of</i> .	Acquaint <i>with</i> .
Adapted <i>to</i> .	Agree <i>with</i> a person, <i>to</i> a proposition from another, <i>upon</i> it among ourselves.
Arrive <i>at, in</i> .	Charge <i>with</i> .
Averse <i>to, from</i> .	Connect <i>with</i> .
Capacity <i>for</i> .	Correspond <i>with</i> .
Compare <i>with, to</i> .	Reconcile <i>to</i> a person, <i>with</i> a thing.
Copy <i>after</i> a person, <i>from</i> a thing.	Die <i>of</i> a disease, <i>by</i> an instrument.
Reduce <i>under</i> .	Differ <i>from</i> .
Rely <i>on</i> .	Different <i>from</i> .
Differ <i>with</i> a person, <i>from</i> a thing.	Entrance <i>into</i> .
Disappointed <i>of</i> a thing not obtained, <i>in</i> a thing obtained.	Expert <i>in, at</i> .
Followed <i>by</i> .	Familiar <i>to</i> us, <i>with</i> a thing.
Influence <i>on, over, with</i> .	Impatient <i>of</i> control, <i>at</i> delay, <i>for</i> something, <i>under</i> wrongs.
Interfere <i>with</i> .	Profit <i>by</i> .
Provide <i>with</i> a thing, <i>for</i> a person, <i>against</i> misfortunes.	Suitable <i>to, for</i> .
	Unite <i>to, with</i> .

8. *In* denotes a *place where*; *into*, *entrance*; as, "He got *into* a coach and rode *in* it."

9. *At* is used before the names of *houses, villages, and foreign cities*, and after the verbs *arrive, touch, and land*; "He boards *at* the American house." "At Greensboro." "At Rome." "He touched at Liverpool on the 1st, and arrived at Norfolk on the 20th."

10. *In* is used before names of *countries, and large cities not foreign*; as, "In North Carolina." "In Memphis."

11. *Between* relates to two objects, *among* to more than two.

EXERCISES TO BE CORRECTED AND PARSED.

Who did you speak to? Whom do you labor for. He walked by a staff with moonlight. He has a capacity in learning. He is reconciled with his brother. You may safely confide on him. They have gone in the garden. He went in the house. This is different to that. He

was accused for betraying his master. You have no occasion of his aid. They quarrelled among each other. I was at Philadelphia last year. He lives at New Orleans. Ovid was banished Rome. They lived sometime at France. James and John shared it among them. The soldiers divided it between them.

EXERCISE IN COMPOSITION.

423. Arrange these sentences differently without changing the meaning. *Example*; "Caesar conquered Pompey." "Pompey was conquered by Caesar."

The Saxons conquered the greater part of Britain. The ancient Egyptians embalmed the bodies of the dead. A virtuous life will secure the respect of men. The Chinese used the magnetic needle long ago. A good government will enforce the laws. Patience and perseverance will overcome all obstacles. The first bank was established by the merchants of Venice. Vasco de Gama discovered the passage to India around the cape of Good Hope.

RULE XVIII. OBJECTIVES AFTER PREPOSITIONS.

424. The object of the preposition is put in the objective case.

1. Prepositions are not always necessarily followed by the objective case. That is only one of their uses.

2. They form a part of compound words: as, *over-power, under-go, out-side.*

3. They may be joined to verbs forming compound transitives, as, "She smiled *on* him," or be added to them like adverbs: as, "He has gone *away*." "He is coming *down*."

4. Transitive verbs governing a case should not at the same time be followed by a preposition: as, "This allows *of* no trifling."

5. *But* meaning except sometimes takes an objective; as, "All *but* him."

In some writers it takes the nominative; as, Who *but*

he. "There is none other but *he*," but *he is*. This is the older usage.

6. *Than* after comparatives is by some authorities made to govern the objective; as, "Beelzebub *than whom* none higher sat."

Others use the more rational and correct form *than who*, that is "than who sat, none sat higher."

EXERCISES.

We arrived at Liverpool on the 1st instant. We ought to profit by the errors of others. On his arrival he divided his property between his two sons. Dr. Kane penetrated far into the Arctic regions. Go into the carriage and shut the door. Hannibal forced his way into Italy.

EXERCISE IN COMPOSITION.

425. Write a description of a chair. Point out its parts; the material employed, the tools used in making it; its different forms and uses. Write anything you know of its history.

RULE XIX. CONJUNCTIONS.

426. Conjunctions connect sentences and parts of sentences; as, "The sun shines and the clouds disappear," "William and Mary are a happy pair."

1. When conjunctions connect single words they must be of the same class and in the same construction; as, "Between you and I." should be "between you and me." "Men sincerely, loving their fellow creatures and *who hate* oppression," should be "and hating oppression."

2. It is not necessary that verbs should be in the same mode and tense; as, "He neither *receives* nor *can give* delight." "There *may be* and usually *is* an ellipsis of the verb." Errors are made by

undertaking to put verbs in the same mode and tense according to Murray's rule; as, "The alchemists taught that bodies were composed of salt, sulphur, and mercury." It should be *are* composed."

3. *Than* after a comparative degree is followed by a nominative and verb expressed or understood; as, "He is taller than I," "than I *am*," "He loves him more than me," "more than he loves me." The case of the word following *than* depends upon the words to be supplied; as, "Cæsar's soldiers were better disciplined than Pompey's," "than Pompey's soldiers were."

4. After expressions of *doubt*, *fear* and *denial*, *that*, and not *but that* or *lest* should be used; "I do not doubt that he is honest."

5. A clause should not be united with two antecedent clauses unless consistent with them; as, "I am taller, but not so heavy, as my brother," should be "I am taller than my brother is, but not so heavy."

6. After *yet*, *though*, *if*, and *as*, there is often an ellipsis of some *word*, *phrase*, or *clause*; as, "False flew the shaft, though pointed well," though it was pointed." "He was treated as a son" (would be treated). For correlatives see Section 304: 2.

EXERCISES. •

The moon and stars were shining. Neither James nor his brother has come. The house is convenient, but the garden is waste. He would rather go than stay. This book is better than that. Stealing always has been, and always will be considered a crime.

TO BE CORRECTED. •

We saw them entering the gates and cover the square. Competition is excellent and the vital principal. He was a man of taste, and possessing an elevated mind. He loved Andrew and I. He is not so hospitable as her. I doubt not but he will yet appear guilty. I possess not that command of language as is desirable. He conversed with such who are uncultivated. It was such like this.

EXERCISE IN COMPOSITION.

427. Write an account of the different uses of *iron*.

RULE XX. INTERJECTIONS O! OH! AH!

428. The interjections o! oh! ah! are followed by the objective case of the first person; as, "O me!" "Ah me!"

Interjections are generally followed by the vocative of the second person; as, "Oh thou!" "O virtue!"

1. The first expressions are to be regarded as cases of ellipsis; as, Ah pity me! Or, the interjection includes a whole proposition in itself and its force terminates upon me as a personal or dative object.

2. Those of the second person are naturally vocatives.

3. "Woe is me." is equal to "Woe is to me" "Well is thee."—"is to thee."

4. "Me miserable" is also a case of ellipsis. "Alas for me miserable one." or "It is miserable to me."

O! or oh! is frequently used as expressive of wishing; as, "Oh that I had wings like a dove." "I wish that I had wings like a dove."

RULE XXI. THE INFINITIVE.

429. The Infinitive depends upon verbs, nouns, and adjectives; as, "He studies to learn." "He has time to go." "James is anxious to learn."

RULE XXII. THE INFINITIVE WITHOUT TO.

430. The simple infinitive without to, is used after bid, do, feel, have, hear, let, make, need, see, may, can, will, shall, must.

1. The infinitives after *may*, *can*, *will*, *shall*, and *must*, are commonly regarded as forming the future and potential tenses. These verbs require the infinitive as a complement.

2. The origin of the two forms of the infinitive has already been explained.

The infinitive with *to*, or the supine, and the verbal noun have nearly taken the place of the simple infinitive.

3. The rules given will apply only when the infinitives modify verbs, nouns, and adjectives.

4. The infinitives are properly verbal nouns. They differ from the noun in that they have government and may receive the modification of verbs.

5. Its principal uses are; first, as a *noun*; second, as representing a *contracted proposition*.

I. As a *noun*.

(1.) As the subject; as, "*To err* is human." Compare "*Error* is human."

(2.) As the predicate; as, "His object is *to improve*," i. e. *improvement*.

(3.) As the object; as, "He learns *to read*," i. e. *reading*.

(4.) As the second object (of thing); as, "He taught him *to write*."

(5.) As the direct object with the indirect or dative; as, "He allowed me *to ride*." "Promised him *to go*." Also in the passive, "I was allowed *to ride*."

(6.) As the factitive object; as, "He bid him *go*." "They let us *depart*."

(7.) As a subject after *than* in comparison; as, "To give is better than to receive (is.)"

(8.) As in apposition with a noun; as, "Spare them the task *to read &c.*"

(9.) As an adjunct; as, "He is *about to write*," about writing."

(10.) A few verbs are followed by the infinitive used objectively, which is equal to a preposition and a verbal noun; as, "Boys delight *to play*." "Boys delight *in playing*." In all these cases the rules applying to nouns should be used.

II. The infinitive expresses a *purpose* or *result*, sometimes *manner* or *degree*. In these cases it represents a contracted proposition.

Examples; — "He studies *to learn*" — *that he may learn*. "He stood up *to read*" — *that he might read*. "He is willing to suffer" — *that he may suffer*. "He is liable to be robbed" — *that he may be robbed*.

(1.) In this manner it modifies adjectives; as, "He is *eager to learn*"—*that he may learn*. "He was *ambitious to rule*"—*that he might rule*." "The fruit is *good to eat*"—*so that it may be eaten*.

(2.) It modifies nouns in a similar manner; as, "It is *time to study*"—*that we should study*. "He showed an *eagerness to learn*"—*that he might learn*.

6. The infinitive modifies some adverbs. They are such as imply an adjective or noun; as, "He is old *enough to write*"—*that he may write*. Enough is equal to sufficiently. "He does not know *how to write*"—*in what manner he may write*. "He does better *than to write*"—*than he would do if he should write*."

Here there is an ellipsis.

7. In "He seems *to fast*." "He appears *to write*" we may substitute "He seems or appears *fasting* or *that he fasts*."

8. "He was seen *to return*" is equal to "He was seen *returning*."

9. The infinitive is sometimes used as an attributive modifier; as "The time *to come*," *the future time*. "A book *to be desired*," *a desirable book*.

10. "He is *to go*." He is *to write*, are perhaps cases of the insensible extension of the original meaning of the infinitive.

11. "The house is *to let*" may be explained as an ellipsis. The house is intended that it may be let. "I have a house *to let*,"—*that I wish to let*.

12. The infinitive is sometimes used absolutely, as "To *confess* the truth I was in fault." "To *proceed* with the story."

13. *To* should never be used alone for the infinitive; as, "I have never intrigued for office and I never intend *to*," It should be "I never intend to do so."

EXERCISES.

To steal is sinful. To be wise is to be happy. It is pleasant to see the sun. I hope to see you. Boys love to play. I heard him speak. They would have him go. They are to walk. The ship is to sail. This is a work to be valued. They came to learn. She is anxious to succeed. James taught John to write. He promised him to come. They appointed him to go as commissioner.

TO BE CORRECTED.

He bids me to come. Hear the bell to ring. He walks and I wish to. We dare not to go. Instruct him to carefully observe these things. Strive to seriously impress them. He wished him to then be their King.

EXERCISE IN COMPOSITION.

431. Write an account of the uses of *silver*.

RULE XXIII. THE INFINITIVE AND OBJECTIVE CASE.

432. The Infinitive has sometimes a subject in the objective case ; as, "I believe him to be dishonest."

1. Certain verbs of thinking and judging ; such as, *think, judge, hold, consider, regard, admit, believe, know, suppose, suspect, acknowledge, declare, warrant*, are followed by an objective case, and infinitive, standing in the relation of subject and predicate.

2. These are a species of contracted propositions and may be resolved into subordinate propositions.

3. They are either in the contracted or expanded form, the object of the verb ; and the objective case may be parsed as the subject of the infinitive.

4. The objective case thus used as the subject of the infinitive is always different from the subject of the leading verb, both in the contracted and expanded form.

Examples :—"I believe *the sun* to be the centre of the solar system." "I know *him* to be a man of veracity," are equal to, "I believe the sun is the centre &c.," "I know that he is a man of veracity."

EXERCISES.

I judge him to be innocent. I know him to be honest. He considered the horse to be safe. They

supposed him to be there. He acknowledged him to be his brother. He warranted the horse to be sound. I hold it to be certain.

RULE XXIV. PARTICIPLES.

433. Participles refer to nouns and pronouns ; as, "James, seated at the table, was reading." "He stood leaning on his staff."

1. The participle may also refer to a clause or sentence ; as, "*He was detained a day beyond the time, owing to the bad state of the roads.*" Here *owing* refers to the sentence preceding.

2. The participle is sometimes used absolutely ; as, "Generally *speaking*, his conduct was honorable."

3. When a participle is compounded with *un* it becomes an adjective unless the verb is also a compound with the same ; as, "*Unhonored.*" "*Unsung.*"

4. The participle expresses the idea of the verb as an attribute and thus modifies nouns like an adjective ; "The *rising* sun." "The *beaten* track."

RULE XXV. THE VERBAL NOUN.

434. Verbal nouns in *ing* have the same government as the verbs from which they are derived ; as, "writing letters is a pleasant employment." "She was engaged in reading Plato."

1. The participle in *ing* must be distinguished from the verbal noun in *ing*. The latter may be known by its ability to form the subject of a sentence.

It formerly ended in *ung*, and most of the verbal nouns now used once had that ending. Some, of later origin, are formed directly from verbs by adding *ing*.

2. The compound participle is sometimes used as a verbal noun; as, "Cæsar's having crossed the Rubicon spread consternation throughout Rome."

3 This form has evidently arisen from a misconception of the true character of the verbal noun, and is either a substitute for it or an unjustifiable extension of it. The sentence quoted would naturally read "Cæsar's crossing the Rubicon, &c."

4. The compound participle active when used as a verbal noun also governs a case; as, Cæsar's having crossed the Rubicon &c."

5. If the verbal noun is preceded by *the* it must in most cases be followed by *of* or both should be omitted; as, "By the preaching of repentance," or "By preaching repentance."

EXERCISES.

And they, continuing daily with one accord in the temple, and breaking bread from house to house, did eat their meat with gladness and singleness of heart, praising God, and having favor with all the people. He has left town for Ireland without taking leave of either of us. He was displeased with the King's having bestowed the office upon a worthless man.

TO BE CORRECTED.

By observing of truth. Without the taking pains. In tracing of his history we find little that is worthy of imitation. The Emperor being defeated by an army inferior to his own occasioned surprise.

EXERCISE IN COMPOSITION.

435. Change these sentences by substituting a participial construction for the verb, and the contrary; as, "He answered and said," "He answering said:"

The door was opened, and a terrible spectacle presented

itself. The trumpet having sounded, the combatants charged. The door of the cage was left open, and the bird escaped. The battle was finished, and the enemy fell back to the river.

RULE XXVI. THE NOMINATIVE ABSOLUTE.

436. A noun or pronoun joined with a participle and having no dependence upon other words is put in the nominative case absolute; as, "Tarquinius reigning, Pythagoras came into Italy."

1. In such cases the noun with the participle is different from the subject of the principal sentence.

2. This form of expression is a species of contracted propositions; as, the sentence above is equal to, "while Tarquinius was reigning, Pythagoras came into Italy."

3. The noun, when used absolutely with the participle was put in the dative, in Saxon. Similar forms are found in older English; as, in Milton "Him destroyed or won &c" and Tillotson "Him only excepted." Milton also uses the nominative; as, "Whose gray top shall tremble he descending."

RULE XXVII. THE VOCATIVE CASE.

437. The name of the person or thing addressed is put in the vocative; as, "James, listen to me."

All other cases in which the noun or pronoun is used without expressed dependence upon other words are cases of ellipsis or omission; as in the title of books, chapters, &c.; and in abrupt poetical expressions; as, "Johnson's works." "These are Johnson's works."

RULE XXVIII. FUTURE CONTINGENCY.

438. The subjunctive mode is used to express future contingency after the conjunctions *if, though, whether, &c.*; also, after *lest* and *that* joined to a command; and *that* denoting a wish.

Examples:—"Though he *slay* me, yet will I trust in him." "Sin no more, *lest* a worse thing *come* upon thee." "See *that* thou reform." "Oh! that I were at home."

1 The subjunctive is used in the first case only when *shall* may be placed before the verb; as, "though he *shall* slay me."

2. Present usage prefers the future indicative to the subjective.

TO BE CORRECTED AND PARSED.

If he acquires riches they will corrupt his mind. I shall walk in the fields to day unless it rains. Despise not any condition lest it happens to be your own. If he speak only to display his abilities he is unworthy of attention. Was he ever so great and opulent, this conduct would debase him.

EXERCISE IN COMPOSITION.

439. Express the single words, and words in italics, by several, so as to convey the same idea; as, "A sailor," "One who spends his life on the ocean." "The moon is *shining*." "The moon is *shedding her light abroad*." Heaven. A King. Benevolence. A city. Arithmetic. Industry. Night. A noun. The sky is *cloudy*. The sun has *set*. The sea is *rough*. James was *working*. The farmer was *sowing*. The green grass is *springing*.

RULE XXIX. THE USE OF THE TENSES.

440. Those tenses only should be employed, which express correctly the sense intended.

1. The perfect participle must not be used for the past indicative, nor the past tense for the perfect participle; as, "I *done* it in great haste," for

I did; she *came* for she *came*; he *begun* for he *began*; the river has *froze* over for *has frozen*; the horse was *drove* hard for *was driven*.

2. The present perfect must not be used with modifiers expressing past time; as, "I have finished the work two days ago."

3. The tenses of the potential should correspond with each other, not "Ye will not come unto me that ye might have life," but "Ye would not."

4. The present infinitive is used with verbs signifying *to hope, intend, desire, command, promise*; and also to express an action or state not prior to the time of the leading verb; as, "I hoped *to see* you," "I had resolved *to remain*," "He is said *to be* fifty years old." If the action or state is prior to the time of the leading verb, the perfect should be used; as, Galileo is thought *to have invented* the thermometer.

5. The verbs *sit* and *lie* must not be confounded with *set* and *lay*. To *sit* means *to rest on a seat*, to *set* means *to place*. We *sit* down, but *set* things in order. There is, also, an intransitive verb *to set*; as, "The sun *sets*." To *lie* means *to recline*; to *lay* means *to place*. We *lie* down; we *lay* a thing down. In "I *lay* down yesterday," *lay* is the past of *lie*.

TO BE CORRECTED.

They desired to have seen you respected. I expected to have seen them before the news should have reached them, but urgent duties will have prevented. I begun to think I had done wrong. His children have all forsook him. The bell has rang. Robert has come to the same conclusion last week. A beggar was setting by the wayside. A stone was laying in the street. Let us sot down.

He set up and begun to speak. Sin layeth at the door. If he wishes, he might come. He was slandering me behind my back but he never will again. You are talking improperly and have for the last half hour.

EXERCISE IN COMPOSITION.

441. Write a description of the uses of *glass*.

GENERAL EXERCISES ON THE RULES OF SYNTAX.

442. Examples will be given illustrating the use of words, which, with the same form, have different meanings.

Calm was the day and the scene delightful. We may expect a *calm* after a storm. To prevent a quarrel is easier than to *calm* anger. Better is a *little* with content than much with anxiety. They thought *little* of him. A *little* attention will prevent many errors. He is *still* afraid. he labored to *still* the tumult. Still waters are commonly the deepest.

Damp air is unwholesome. Guilt casts a *damp* over the sprightliest hours.

Though she is rich and fair, *yet* she is not amiable. They are *yet* young.

Many persons are better than we think they are. The *few* and the *many* have their prepossessions.

The *ha'il* was very destructive. *Hail*, virtue! thou source of every good. We *hail* you as friends.

Have you seen the horse *that* I have purchased? Give me *that* book. I study, *that* I may improve.

We had been to the *fair*, where we saw a *fair* lady. *Much* money is corrupting. Think *much* and speak little. He has been *much* caressed. His years are *more* than hers, but she has *more* knowledge. Behave yourselves *like* men. We are too apt to *like* bad company. He is esteemed *both* on his own account and that of his parents. *Both* of them deserve praise. *Both* houses are for sale. You must *either* go or stay, you may do *either*. You ought not to do aught that would injure your friend.

443. In these sentences a variety of peculiar constructions are given. Occasionally ellipses are supplied.

In singing *as* in piping you excel.—*Dryden*. I live *as* I did, I think *as* I did, I love you *as* I did.—*Swift*. Darest thou to be *as* good *as* thy word now? He answered their questions *as* if it was a matter that needed it.—*Locke*. "*As he would do it.*" These should be gently treated *as* though we expected to be in their condition.—*Sharp*. "*As we would treat them though or if.*" *As* for the rest of those who have written against me, they deserve not the least notice.—*Dryden*. A bottle swinging at each side *as* hath been said or sung.—*Cowper*. They pretend to great refinement *as* to what regards Christianity.—*Addison*. Let them say what they will, she will do what she lists. What if I advance an invention of my own to supply the defect of our new writers?—*Dryden*. Whatever is read, differs from what is repeated.—*Swift*.

I was adopted heir by his consent,
Since when his oath is broke.—*Shakspeare*.

What is *that* to us? See thou to *that*,
I'll know your businesss, *that* I will.
All the conspirators *save* only he,
Did what they did in envy of great Cæsar.
Shakspeare.

Night shades the groves, and all in silence lie,
All *save* the mournful Philomel and I.—*Young*.

For who *but* he who arched the skies,
Could raise the daisy's purple bud?
He that is washed needeth not *save* to wash his feet.
Bible.

And all desisted, all *save* him alone.—*Wordsworth*.

The boy stood on the burning deck,
Whence all *but* him had fled.—*Hemans*.

PART FIFTH.

PROSODY.

CHAPTER XXVI.

441. *Prosody* treats of accent, quantity, and the laws of versification.

1. *Accent* is a stress of voice laid on a certain syllable in a word; as *ban* in *abandon*.

2. The *Quantity* of a syllable is the relative time occupied in pronouncing it.

3. *Versification* is a measured arrangement of syllables in which the accent is made to recur at certain regular intervals.

4. In classical languages the arrangement of syllables was determined by quantity, so as to produce a regular succession of long and short syllables.

5. In English and most of the modern languages, it is determined chiefly by accent.

SECTION I. KINDS OF VERSE.

445. A verse consists of a certain number of accented and unaccented syllables arranged according to certain rules. It is frequently called a line.

446. There are two kinds of verse; *rhyme*, and *blank verse*.

1. *Rhyme* is the correspondence of the last sound of one line with the last sound of another; as,

— Thus to relieve the wretched was his *pride*,
And even his failings leaned to virtue's *side*."

GOLDSMITH.

“ Lay thy bow of pearl *apart*,
 And they silver shining *quiver* ;
 Give unto the flying *hart*
 Time to breathe how short *soever*.”

BEN JONSON.

2. *Blank verse* is verse without rhyme ; as,

“ The quality of mercy is not strained,
 It droppeth as the gentle dew from heaven
 Upon the place beneath ; it is twice blessed,
 It blesses him that gives, and him that takes.”

SHAKSPEARE.

It generally contains ten syllables.

446. A *stanza* consists of several verses or lines, and is sometimes improperly called a *verse*.

447. A *couplet* consists of two verses which make complete sense.

448. A *foot* or *measure* is a division of a verse. It is the single combination of accented and unaccented syllables whose regular succession constitutes verse.

449. *Scanning* is dividing a verse into the feet of which it is composed.

SECTION II. KINDS OF FEET.

450. The principal feet in English verse are the *Iambus*, the *Trochee*, and the *Anapaest*.

451. The *Iambus* consists of two syllables ; the first unaccented, and the second accented ; as,
 “ What *pláce* is *hére*.”

452. The *Trochee* consists of two syllables ; the first accented, the second unaccented ; as, *Résless-mórtals-tóil* for-nought.”

453. The *Anapaest* consists of three syllables ; the first two unaccented, and the last accented ; as,
 I would *híde*-with the *beásts*-of the *cháse*.

454. Verse in which the Iambus prevails is called *Iambic* verse; that in which the Trochee prevails, *Trochaic* verse; that in which the Anapaest prevails, *Anapaestic*.

In what follows accented syllables will be marked *a*, unaccented *x*, additional syllables *+*.

455. The succession of syllables in the Iambus is *x a*; in the Trochee *a x*; in the Anapaest *x x a*.

Besides these there is the *Dactyl* which is *a x x*; the *Spondee*, which has *a a*, and some others.

SECTION III. IAMBIC VERSE.

456. 1st form. One measure or foot. Formula, *x a +*.

Disdain-ing,
Complain-ing,
Consent-ing,
Repent-ing.

2. Two measures. Formula *x a × 2* or *x a × 2 +*

"The strains-decay
And melt-away."
"Upon-a moun-tain,
Beside-a foun-tain."

3. Three measures. Formula, *x a × 3*.

"In pla-ces far-or near,
Or fa-mous or-obscure."

Or *x a × 3 +*: "Our hearts-no lon-ger lan-guish."

4. Four measures. Formula, *x a × 4*.

"On on-he has-tened and-he drew
My gaze-of won-der as-he flew."

5. Five measures. Formula, *x a × 5*. *Heroic measure*.

"How loved-how val-ued once-avails-the-not.
To whom-relat-ed or-by whom-begot."

This is one of the most common forms of English verse.

6. Six measures. Formula, $xa \times 6$. *The Alexandrine.*

"For thou-art but-of dust-be hum-ble and-be wise."

7. Seven measures. Formula, $xa \times 7$. *Service measure.*

"The Lord-descend-ed from-above,-and bowed-the heav-ens high."

This is now written in two lines, or 8 syllables and 7 s; as,

"The Lord-descend-ed from-above,
And bowed-the heav-ens high."

SECTION IV TROCHAIC VERSE.

457. 1. One measure, and one syllable. Formula $ax +$

"Tumult-cease,
Sink to-peace."

2. Two measures. Form. $ax \times 2$.

"On the-mountain
By a-fountain."

3. Three measures. Form. $ax \times 3$.

"When our-hearts are-mourning."

Or $ax \times 3 +$ "Restless-mortals-toil for-naught."

4. Four measures. Form. $ax \times 4$.

"Round us-roared the-tempest-louder.

Or $ax \times 3 +$ "Idle after-dinner-in his-chair,
Sat a-farmer-ruddy-fat and-fair."

5. Five measures. Form. $ax \times 5$.

"All that-walk on-foot or-ride in-chariots."

6. Six measures. Form. $ax \times 6$.

On a-mountain-stretched be-neath a-hoary-willow.

7. Seven measures. Form. $ax \times 7 +$

"Here a-bout the-beach I-wandered-nourish-ing a youth
sub-lime,
With the-fairy-tales of-science-and the-long re-sults of
time."

SECTION V. ANAPAESTIC VERSE.

1. One measure. Formula $x x a$.

"In a sweet
Resonance."

2. Two measures. Form. $x x a \times 2$.

In my rage-shall be seen,
The revenge-of a queen.

Or $x x a \times 2 +$

"He is gone-on the mount-ain."

3. Three measures. Form. $x x a \times 3$.

O ye woods-spread your branch-es apace.

4. Four measures. Form. $x x a \times 4$.

"May I gov-ern my pas-sions with ab-solute sway."

Or $x x a \times 4 +$

"On the warm-cheek of youth-smiles and ro-ses are blend-
ing."

458. *Common metre* consists of four lines, the first and third of four Iambics $x a \times 4$; the second, and fourth of three Iambics $x a \times 3$.

459. *Long metre* has four lines, consisting of four Iambics $x a \times 4$.

460. *Short metre* consists of four lines. The first, second, and fourth of three Iambics $x a \times 3$. The third of four Iambics $x a \times 4$.

461. *Hallelujah metre* consists of eight lines. The first four contains three Iambics; the last four two Iambics.

FINIS.

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